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CRITICAL REVIEW.

For NOVEMBER, 1785.

A Voyage to the Cape of Good Hope, towards the Antartic Polar Circle, and round the World: but chiefly into the Country of the Hottentots and Caffres, from the Year 1772 to 1776. By Andrew Sparrman, M.D. Translated from the Swedish Original. With Plates. In Two Volumes. 4to. 1l. 10s. in Boards. Robinson.

THE pleasure of accompanying a sensible improving traveller is much increased when the objects which he surveys are new; when he can contemplate nature in uncommon scenes, or examine productions which have hitherto eluded the eyes of the most enterprising enquirers. The entertainment, derived from the volumes before us, arises from all these sources; for where we had acquired some previous knowledge, it was obscured by the different relations of contending travellers, and the mind hung in doubt from the marvellous nature of their stories. Those who are conversant with works of this kind, will perceive that we allude to the Histories of Kolben and de la Caille. The first author is apparently careful and exact; but credulous and unimportant: the second is more eager to contradict his predecessor than to establish the truth. In Dr. Sparrman's voyage we find fewer wonders; and, on that account only, we might suppose his representation more exact, if his fidelity were not supported by very numerous opportunities of acquiring information, and an established character of precision and intelligence. In a few inconsiderable circumstances we find him a little inaccurate; but, in general, his remarks are equally just and exact. The translator seems to have executed his task with fidelity and neatness: the objects of the plates are well chosen, and the engravings executed with care.

The objects of a traveller, like Dr. Sparrman, are the works of nature, whether in the more inanimate objects, as the general appearance of the country, or its inhabitants, considered

in the most extensive scale. In his descriptions of the country, he appears a skilful painter: his language is forcible and strong, and his delineations distinguished by their vivid colouring and just perspective. Of the inhabitants of the country, man justly claims the pre-eminence; and we find the indolent, faithless Hottentot, the more treacherous Boshie man, and the wilder Caffre, discriminated from each other. Some peculiar animals are well described; and the indigenous plants of that district frequently mentioned by their generic and trivial names. In the Supplement of the younger Linnæus, we find many of these, but there are some others which, for some unknown reason, are not included in that work.

Dr. Sparrman was appointed tutor to the governor's children, at False Bay; but this was an office very different from the intention of his voyage, viz. to examine the natural history of this remote part of the world, and was chiefly calculated to prevent him from being suspected as a spy. In this situation, which employed a great part of his time, in circumstances not the most opulent, surrounded by difficulties, arising from the indolent disposition of the natives, and the jealousy of the European inhabitants, we wonder that he has done so much. Nothing but the ardour which has distinguished every pupil of the Linnæan school; nothing but the example of their master in equal difficulties, though less barbarous countries, could have animated their spirits, or supported their constancy. Dr. Sparrman not only examined the natural history of the neighbourhood of False Bay, but travelled, amidst a variety of dangers, from the most ferocious beasts, the most treacherous inhabitants, the most inconvenient conveyances, and the united opposition of frightful precipices, and rapid rivers, in a country where roads and bridges are unknown. The great end of this voyage is not, as has been sometimes asserted, to discover a new plant, or an unknown animal, but to survey nature in her most retired recesses, and ultimately to give an additional security to the hazards of navigation. The shipwreck of the Doddington India-man, and very lately of another, arose in a great degree from its not being known that the coast of Africa extended far to the east before it began to trend, in any remarkable degree, to the north; so that ships sailing from India fell in with Caffraria farther eastward than they expected; and those who were far enough to the south, still contended with the boisterous element, in these rough climates, though many harbours are to be found on the southern coast to the east of False Bay, which were disingenuously or treacherously concealed. These

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are discoveries which make the present volumes not only very entertaining, but highly useful.

A short account also of captain Cook's voyage to the southern hemisphere, is given in the first volume. It is well known, that Dr. Sparrman accompanied this able navigator from the Cape, and returned to it. The relation is remarkable only for a few circumstances, not inserted in the English narratives; but which are not of sufficient consequence to detain us.

It may be necessary to premise, since the term may occur in the following quotations, that an *uur*, viz. an hour, when it is employed to denote a given space, means six miles; and that a *skoft* or four *uurs*, viz. twenty-four miles, is equal to one day, or the space usually travelled in twelve common hours. There is a little contradiction relating to the distance between the Cape and False Bay; in one place, it is said to be equal to eighteen, and in another to sixteen miles. There is an apparent contradiction too, which should have been prevented by the translator, where the author, in April, speaks of the preceding January as the January of the *preceding year*. It is indeed the preceding year according to the old style, still employed by the northern nations, but the same in our method of reckoning. But to return.

The country is the first object of the traveller's attention; and, as the extent of the eastern coast of Africa is a very important one, we shall select some of our traveller's observations on it.

—It is necessary to remark, that all the maps and charts of the eastern coast of Africa hitherto known, are faulty in making the extent of it to the eastward much less than it really is, and than I found it to be in my journey over land. I am likewise sensible, that many navigators have, in the course of their voyages, taken notice of the same error; and among them captain Cook, at the time when, being on his return from his first voyage round the globe into the Endeavour, he fell in with this coast unawares. Moreover, during our stay near Seacow-river, a ship was seen one evening under full sail making directly for the shore, and did not tack about till she was almost too near. I afterwards learnt at the Cape, that this was a Dutch vessel; and that from the chart she carried with her, she had not expected to come upon the coast nearly so soon, nor had she perceived it till just before she had tacked about. My host, who, while the vessel was hovering about the coast, had rode along with me to a part of the shore higher than the rest, could distinguish the ship's crew from thence; but it seems that none of them saw us, probably on account of some mist or exhalation proceeding from the land.'

We shall select the following short description, as a specimen of our author's talents, in this department.

' Very late in the evening we arrived at our driver's farm, which was very pleasantly situated on the other side of Bott Rivier. This river was beset at small intervals with pretty high mountains, the peaks and ridges of which delightfully varied the scene. In the declivities of some of them caverns and grottos were seen, which certainly did not exist from the beginning, but were produced by the vicissitudes and changes to which all natural objects are subject. Even the hard and steep rocky precipices, which one would imagine to be doomed to everlasting nakedness, were, on their black walls, teeming with iron-ore, adorned with several climbing plants, the branches and tendrils of which they gratefully in return with their sharply-projecting angles, stretched out and supported. In the clefts of these declivities I observed the plants, which nature had produced on these elevated hot-beds, already in bloom, and which, in their pride, might bid defiance to all human approach. A few stones throw from this farm there was a mineral water of considerable strength, which nobody in this quarter had had the sense to make use of. The stones and rocks in several spots hereabouts contained a great deal of iron.'

The spirit and animation of our author's description are the more remarkable, since his conveniencies were so few. A short account of the manner of travelling in Africa is very entertaining.

' On the morning of the 25th of July I rode from the Cape. My waggon was driven by the boor who had sold me five pair of oxen. But this I was not to have till I got to this same man's farm near Bott Rivier, which is in the way to the warm bath, whither I was going. There are no houses of entertainment established in the inland part of this country; so that every one is obliged to travel with their own horses and carriages, as well as their own provision. Our road lay through the low country over dry sand and heaths. In the middle, or the warm part of the day, like other travellers in this country, we let our oxen go to water and look out for pasturage. These animals are easily satisfied with the poor nourishment of the dry shrubs and grass, which are most common about the Cape, but the horses are under a greater difficulty to find provision sufficiently fine and nourishing. It is chiefly for this reason, that in Africa most of the beasts of burden they use are oxen; and it is, perhaps, from the same cause, that the horses here are seemingly less strong and hardy than they are in Europe.

' As soon as the cool of the evening came on, we continued our journey over Eerste Rivier to the foot of a high mountain, called Hottentot Holland's Kloof. The environs here were
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higher and less parched up than in the former part of our journey, and were besides adorned with several pleasant farms. It was already night, and as dark as pitch, when we alighted; we made a little fire, by which, after we had finished a moderate supper, we went to sleep. All the conveniencies I had for sleeping were at present, as well as during the major part of my journey, reduced to the bare ground for a bed, a saddle for my pillow, and a great coat to cover me from the cold of the night; for a place to lie in we looked out for the side of some bush, which seemed most likely to shelter us from the south-east, or any other wind that might chance to blow at that time. When it rained, we lay in the tilt-waggon itself. Here, on account of our baggage, we were still worse off. The best place I could find for myself was my chest, though even that had a round top; Mr. Immelman, being slender and less than me, was able, though not without great difficulty, to squeeze himself in between my chest and the body of the waggon, where he lay on several bundles of paper: he had, however, no reason to boast of a much easier bed. Sometimes we made our bed under the waggon, where, being under cover, we were somewhat sheltered indeed from the rain and the dew; but on the other hand, had rather too near, and not quite so agreeable neighbours in our oxen, which were tied up to the wheels and poles, and also to the rails of the waggon, and were so obstreperous, that we could only venture to creep among the gentlest of them. These companions of ours were moreover very restless, when any wild beasts were near the spot. Again, when we had an opportunity of taking a night's lodging at a peasant's house, we were for the most part rather worse lodged. In most places the house consisted of two rooms only, with the floor of earth or loam. The interior one of these was used for a bed-chamber for the boor himself, with his wife and children. The outer one composed the kitchen, in a corner of which they spread a mat for us on the floor; and in this generally consisted all the conveniencies the good folks could afford us. As for the rest we were obliged to make our beds of our saddles and great coats, together with a coverlet we brought with us. The Hottentots of either sex, young and old, who were in the boor's service, always chose to sleep in the chimney. This mostly took up a whole gabel of the house, and at the same time had no other hearth than the floor, on which consequently we all lay pigging together. An host of fleas and other inconveniencies, to which we were by this means subjected, made us frequently rather chuse to sleep in the open air; in case the coldness of the air, high winds and rainy weather, did not make it more disagreeable to us. I thought the best way of furnishing my readers with a general idea of the manner in which we were obliged to pass most of our nights during our expedition, would be to give them an account of my first night's lodging.

In this way our author proceeded to the warm baths, which contain iron, suspended by fixed air, with perhaps an earthy salt of the vitriolic acid and lime. The water was quite hot, without scalding; but it produced deliquium in about ten minutes. Probably its heat was about 105° of Fahrenheit.

The land, by the colonists, is chiefly distinguished into two kinds, the *carrow* and the *four* fields; and, in this narrative, we frequently find the country described only by these terms. The carrows are quite dry, parched, and bare of grass. The earth, in this part of Africa, generally dry, and frequently unadorned with the lively verdure of vegetables in the carrows, looks unusually naked, and is full of clefts and chinks. They are also generally surrounded by high cold mountains of granite, seemingly rich in iron ore. Here the sun scorches the traveller with its reflected rays; and the relief from rain is scarcely a less evil than the burning sun; for, instead of falling in refreshing showers, it deluges in vast sheets of water, seldom unaccompanied by bursts of thunder. But this gives a temporary verdure to these dreary spots, and, as usual, order rises out of confusion. These storms furnish in the winter, the most fruitful season in this desert spot, a temporary and precarious sustenance for the cattle, who, at other times, browse on the shrubs and bushes, or seek for the reeds in the neighbouring rivers.

The *four* fields lie higher and cooler than the shore: they are generally covered with a coarse grass, as they are frequently sprinkled by gentle rain; but the sheep, fed in them, gnaw bones, harnesses, or, when shut up together, even each other's horns. This appetite, which seems to point out an acid in the stomach, is the occasion of the term. All land, not similar to the carrow and four fields, are denominated sweet. The four fields yield less milk, but more, and better butter, than the sweet. Sheep are fed best in the carrows, next in the sweet fields, and least profitably in the four ones.

If we examine the whole country, in its vast extent, we find a wildness, arising from craggy rocks of an amazing height, separated by considerable plains, and sometimes by impassible woods. This angle of the old world seems the part of a vast continent, where we trace no vestiges of a former sea, whose mountains are not composed of marine productions, but consist of that primæval stone, whose existence is anterior to a deluge; or whose texture is so firm, as to be incapable of any admixture with the contents of its destructive waters. Yet these hills seem to be yielding to the continued action of a boisterous element; and, instead of rising from the sea, the
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land at the Cape is rather falling into it. We shall conclude this account of the country, by a meteorological history of the weather, during the summer months of this southern hemisphere.

‘ During the first half of May the thermometer kept fluctuating between 53 and 63 degrees; and during the latter half, between 50 and 58, excepting on the 27th of this month, when it was at the lowest, or 49½, although the day was clear and the sun shone. The rainy days in this month were the 11th, 12th, 15th, 16th, 30th; and among these the three first named were the worst, and accompanied with tempestuous north-west winds; so that when I passed Zout Rivier on the 11th, the water was no higher than my horse's knees; but when I repassed it on the 15th, the water had risen so high, in consequence of the rain and tide, as to reach up to my saddle.

‘ In the month of June the thermometer was between 54 and 60. There was a fall either of rain or snow on the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 14th, 27th, and so on to the 31st inclusively. Besides these, there were a few other cloudy days, attended with a high wind; but the remainder resembled our fine summer days in Sweden. On the 3d, it rained very violently, when it happened that a quantity of water which, in the preceding days, had been collected on the mountain, burst its way down to the town, and filled the canals there, at the same time overflowing some of the streets; so that for several minutes, it rose to the height of two or three feet against the houses. It likewise washed away a small wall belonging to a stone house, and carried it under the building, at the same time rushing into divers cellars.’

‘ In July, by reason of some intervening affairs that hindered me, I observed the state of the weather only till the 19th; during that time, the thermometer kept between 54 and 59 degrees. The rainy days were the 6th, 7th, 8th, 11th, 12th; clouds without rain on the 3d, 9th, 10th, 13th, and 14th.’

There are some subsequent observations respecting the weather; but, as this is the most connected account, and the instrument by which it was observed was afterwards lost, we have the greatest dependence on what we have selected.

If we advance to the animated inhabitants of this district, we shall find many curious remarks, and entertaining relations. Africa is the native dominion of the lion; and, in its deserts, he reigns with an uncontrolled tyranny. It is infested by the leopard, the tyger, the more subtle hyæna, and the devouring wolf. Where man, the more artful despot, has extended his dominions, these native ravagers gradually disappear, and retire to thick woods, or inaccessible caves. Yet these destructive enemies are not wholly uselefs: the vegetable world would be devoured, and the earth become one vast fruitless desert, if the herbivorous animals, the destined food of man,

increased without limits, where man had not settled. The lion and the tyger restore the equilibrium, by the destruction of the milder animals; but these, again, will not eat bones, and seldom carcases. The wolf and the hyæna then succeed; and what escapes them is devoured by different insects; so that successive crops are preserved on the earth, and the air kept free from a poisonous exhalation.—Such is the wisdom of Providence, to produce the best effects from apparently the most fatal causes! and so blind is man, to doubt of its mercy and goodness, because he sees through a glass darkly, because he perceives but one link of that vast chain, which extends from earth to heaven!

The tyger-wolf, the spotted hyæna of Mr. Pennant (*History of Quadrupeds*, N° 149, page 250), is a singular beast, and very little known.

‘ The night, or the dusk of the evening only, is the time in which these animals seek their prey, after which they are used to roam about both separately and in flocks. But one of the most unfortunate properties of this creature is, that it cannot keep its own counsel. The language of it cannot easily be taken down upon paper; however, with a view to make this species of wolf better known than it has been hitherto, I shall observe, that it is by means of a sound something like the following, aauae, and sometimes ooao, yelled out with a tone of despair, (at the interval of some minutes between each howl,) that nature obliges this, the most voracious animal in all Africa, to discover itself, just as it does the most venomous of all the American serpents, by the rattle in its tail, itself to warn every one to avoid its mortal bite. This same rattle-snake would seem, in consequence of thus betraying its own designs, and of its great inactivity, (to be as it were nature’s step-child,) if, according to many credible accounts, it had not the wonderful property of charming its prey by fixing its eye upon it. The like is affirmed also of the tiger-wolf. This creature it is true, is obliged to give information against itself; but on the other hand, is actually possessed of the peculiar gift of being enabled, in some measure, to imitate the cries of other animals; by which means this arch-deceiver is sometimes lucky enough to beguile and attract calves, foals, lambs, and other animals. As to the howlings of this creature, they are, in fact, as much the natural consequences of hunger, as gaping is of a disposition to sleep; and as the flowing of the saliva, or the water coming into the mouth, is of the sight of some delicacy, which excites the appetite. There must, indeed, be some physical cause for this. The very hollowness of the sound, or some other quality of it which I cannot well describe, induces me to conjecture, that it proceeds from the emptiness of the stomach. In the mean while,

while, that a disposition to this yelling is absolutely implanted in the animal by nature, I am apt to conclude from the instance of a young tiger-wolf that I saw at the Cape, which, though it had been brought up tame from a whelp by a Chinese resident there, and was then chained up, was said nevertheless to be silent in the day time, but very frequently in the night (being then probably hungry) was heard to emit the yelling noise peculiar to its kind.

This power of imitating other voices was known to the ancients, though generally disbelieved by the less credulous, and sometimes sceptical moderns. We are glad to find it supported by our author's authority; and those who examine Mr. Pennant's article, which we have purposely referred to, will see also the foundation of another opinion, that the hyæna was able to change its sex.

Among the quadrupeds of this southern promontory, we find too an apparently insignificant animal, but one capable of destroying the systems of the philosopher, and the theories of the speculatist, viz. the viverra putorius. This is an animal of North America, and not to be found, as Buffon has positively asserted, in the southern parts of the old world. He has asserted it, not from examination, but because he would allow no animals to America, which could not be supposed to migrate through the strait between the two continents eastward of Siberia. This is an additional argument to those which we lately produced, in our review of Mr. Pennant's 'Arctic Zoology,' respecting the improbability of the new world being peopled from the old. We sincerely wish, with our author, that Mr. Buffon, and we may add other naturalists, would be contented with the contemplation of nature, 'which is never without its use, without endeavouring to lay down universal laws for her.'

We must pursue this very entertaining and useful narrative in another article.

Medical Sketches. Part I. By Richard Pew, Member of the Royal Society at Edinburgh. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Bew.

THIS little volume is to be enlarged by successive publications, under the same title; and we shall follow, with pleasure, the improving hints of a young, but active mind. If, in the first part, we perceive much theory, and too extensive quotations, we hope, in the succeeding ones, to distinguish that careful sound observation, which can alone illustrate the natural history of the body in a morbid state. The
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sketch before us is not deficient in this respect; but those which succeed may be more abundantly supplied with it.

The first subject is epilepsy, of which the remote causes, assigned by Dr. Pew, are perhaps too numerous, and a little too redundant. 'Inequality of the bones of the head,' and preternatural tuberosities, are the same in their effects. Of this effect from 'inflammation,' we have no evidence in fact; and 'acrimony' is a vague idea, and requires more explanation; in reality it must be reduced to something else, before we can acknowledge it as a cause of epilepsy. The proximate cause of the disease is more exact. It is founded on the nervous pathology of Dr. Cullen, and is not very different from his opinion. To this, some cases which occurred to the author, and others compiled from different observers, are added. The subject is concluded by farther observations on sensibility and irritability, which are very ingenious.

On the subject of fever, he endeavours to oppose the opinion of the periodical revolution of the disease, depending on the diurnal one of the constitution, because intermittents occur at every different hour. But this is not quite exact; for their general tendency is fixed, and they are only changed in consequence of some irregularity in diet, or some effect of medicine. We see the regular exacerbation of remittents and continued fevers, still more distinctly and accurately. We allow that fevers, instead of anticipating or postponing paroxysms, have sometimes a shorter interval; but we have frequently seen the former, when on examination it appeared more strictly an anticipating paroxysm than our author suspects; for it has been brought on by irregularity in diet. Besides, the greater number of instances establish the general rule, and that is clearly in favour of such paroxysms, independent of irregularity. We refer our author only to the changes from a remittent to a continued fever.

In the proximate cause of fever, Dr. Pew supposes a stimulating cause, acting ultimately on the brain, and the shivering to be the effort of nature to preserve so essential an organ. We cannot enlarge on this subject, but shall only remark, on the one hand, that the very peculiar nature of febrile debility has occasioned great errors in those who have opposed the Cullenian doctrine; and on the other, that perhaps it would be materially assisted, as a cause of fever, by its being supposed owing to a morbid matter actually present. The arguments in support of the opinion of our author are acute; but we think he is less successful in his attempt to show, that the double tertians may be styled an eighteen or thirty-hour inter-

termittent. This dispute must ultimately depend on that concerning the general regularity of febrile accession.

On the subject of apoplexy, Dr. Pew thinks it must depend sometimes on the essential cause of fever, because its recurrence is, at some periods, so frequent, as to appear almost like an epidemic. But, in a large practice, every chronic disease will appear in the same way. Somewhat may be owing to accident, and something to the state of weather: an humoral asthma among old people is almost epidemic in cold and moist air, and apoplexy very frequent in hot weather, entirely independent of fever; so that the frequent occurrence of any disease at a particular period, is not enough to establish it as a febrile epidemic.

Our author concludes with an examination of Dr. Brown's system. His account of it is clear, and we believe exact. His arguments against it are shrewd and humorous.—We shall not enlarge on this subject, as we find the Brunonians are equally ignorant of the operations of nature, and the effect of medicines. Nothing but disgrace can be gained even from victory.

Richardi Relhan, A. M. Collegii Regalis Capellani, Flora Cantabrigiensis, exhibens Plantas Agro Cantabrigiensi indigenas, secundum Systema Sexuale digestas. 8vo. 10s. 6d. White.

WE shall select an account of this work, in the words of the diligent and attentive author.

‘The very great number of plants, indigenous to this country, is sufficiently known from the catalogue of Ray, and those of our very respectable botanical professors. I had not, therefore, the confidence to suppose, when I engaged in this undertaking, that I could find new species, except in the class Cryptogamia: a few, however, and those rather scarce, I have described. But it must be allowed, that the stations of some of the plants, marked in this work, and not mentioned in the catalogue of our professor, together with various observations, were very obligingly communicated by him.

‘The works of Linnæus have furnished the essential and requisite characters: the descriptions and distinctions are added from the best authors, for the sake of those botanists who had not access to the works themselves: I have paid great attention, and not without success, in searching for the cryptogamic plants, and have added, with little hesitation, my own observations, fully satisfied if I shall have rendered the study of botany more easy.’

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We are sorry to observe that this account is unusually partial; since Mr. Relhan has not remarked that he has, with great pains, selected the descriptions from a great variety of the most valuable modern authors, and added plates of the rarest plants. This *unusual* partiality, for we are generally promised more than the author performs, has induced us to add a little to his account, and to supply what he has modestly concealed. Among other works, of the first note and highest authority, we find the celebrated Flora Rossica of Mr. Pallas, Schœffer's Plates, Scopoli's Flora, Weber's Specilegium, Wiegel's Flora and Observations, and Weis's Cryptogamic Plants of Göttingen. In short, we recollect no modern work of credit which Mr. Relhan does not appear to have consulted. Mr. Curtis and Mr. Hudson seem to have been particularly attended to.

Among the more remarkable plants, we may mention the mountain stone-parsley, the *athamanta libanotis* Linnæi, which has not hitherto been considered as an English plant, but was discovered by our author in 1783. This plant is represented in an annexed plate. The new flag next engraved, is the lichen *muscorum*, the moss lichen: it is not included in Linnæus' system. We shall select the description from Weber.

'*Crustra parum cohærens, farinosa, Byssio incanæ Lin. omnino similis, colore pariter varians cinereo, aut ex cinereo virefcenti. Tubercula in ficcioribus interdum planiuscula, alias convexa, nitentia, atra, copiosa, magna, ætate sæpius turbinata. Weber.*'

There is another species of lichen, discovered by our author, of which a plate is added: it is styled the subimbricated lichen.

Crustra orbicularis, crassa, margine subimbricato. Diameter 1-4 uncialis. Scutellæ innumera.

The next species of lichen represented in a plate, and first discovered by Mr. Relhan, in England, is the lichen *lentigerus*, or white lichen.

Scutellæ juniores perexiguæ, concavæ, postea convexæ, tandem tuberculis similes.

This is a sufficient specimen of our author's attention; and we have confined ourselves to the plates, to give in the shortest compass the most information. The other plates represent the *cineraria alpina* of Linnæus, the *anemone pulsatilla*, and the *thesium linophyllum*. They are all executed with accuracy rather than elegance, and serve to instruct more than they will amuse. On the whole, we think this a very respectable and useful work.

An Essay on Agriculture, with a View to inform Gentlemen of Landed Property, whether their Estates are managed to the greatest Advantage. By Thomas Stone. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Baldwin.

THE simple candour, and plain good sense, which seem to have dictated the contents of these pages, must render them highly estimable to gentlemen of landed property, for whose use the volume was written. The great object is to inform them to what points their attention is to be directed, in leasing their estates, or in trusting, more generally, their concerns. This leads our author into many miscellaneous considerations relating to husbandry; and his remarks, though seldom very new, are commonly just. What we mean by *new* is, that no particular plan is recommended, which had not been before practised; but this is less the design of the author, than to apply what is already known to the use of those for whom the Essay is designed. We read, with particular pleasure, his observations on the breed of cattle, and on the improving stock of horses; for he does not push his opinions precipitately, with the zeal of a reformer, but recommends with the calm discretion of an experienced observer. The shape, the form of animals, must be, in a great degree, connected with their general health; and that again must influence the time required to fatten them, and their state when fat. The observations on husbandry are calculated to preserve the estate in an improving condition, by accurately ascertaining the mutual claims and interests of the landlord and tenant. In this way, the rent is only the annual price paid for the use of the land; it is not a deduction from the real value, which it must be, when at the end of a term the estate is left in an impoverished condition.

‘ There is no set of men, says our author, I have a higher esteem for than farmers; but I must confess, that no set of men know better how to make a bargain for their own advantage. A steward ought to be careful how he allows the custom of any country, for there is a good, and a bad one every where. For instance, where a farmer is allowed to take only two crops and a fallow; and after fallow, turnips and barley, which is generally esteemed good husbandry, he can manage his farm so, that at the end of a term he will have sowed all his land with a successive crop; or having taken two crops, the whole will be to fallow by the incoming tenant in his first year, which will be an insuperable objection against any man’s hiring it. Indeed the like advantages may be taken throughout the whole of a lease loosely and injudiciously made. And

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was the case to be litigated, in which a tenant had taken two crops and left all his land to be fallowed, it might be determined in the tenant's favour, he having only taken two crops to a fallow, during his term, according to agreement: therefore a man, who is a good judge of the properties of land, and its condition, will frame covenants suitable to each case, in order to remedy such an evil. For instance, a farmer should be bound not to crop more than a certain proportion of his arable land with the same kind of grain in any year of the term; not to sow a second or successive crop upon more than a certain proportion thereof every year; after which he should be constrained to fallow, manure, and sow turnips or coleseed, and to lay the same down with artificial or natural grasses for such a limited time, as should be approved.

‘In some cases it might be adviseable for a farmer to covenant to lay a proportion of his farm down for perpetual pasture at the commencement of the term, and to lay other parts down at stipulated times during the lease. However it is a landlord's business to improve the value of his estate, not only at the end of the term, but during the occupation; yet the great view ought to be directed to the end of the term, that the value of the land may not be reduced, but improved, and made desirable for a tenant to continue thereon, or others to take it.’

We have selected this passage, as an instance of the plainness and simplicity of our author: we have selected it too, as we trust it will recommend his performance, and perhaps himself, to those most interested in similar concerns.

La Grace et la Nature, Poème. 8vo. 5s. Longman.

THIS poem is adorned with a new title, and extended by the addition of ten cantos. Its former title ‘*La Louange*,’ was a term equally equivocal with those which are now prefixed to it. In fact, this poem is of the religious kind, chiefly in the language of Scripture, an extended commentary on the 148th Psalm, with numerous annotations. After much difficulty, we have reached the end; for the style is frequently flat and prosaic, the lines sometimes inharmonious: we can praise little but the author's design. ‘The work, says *Monf. de la Fléchère*, is not polemic; it treats of no object of controversy; it unites moral philosophy with the principal tenets of the Gospel, and consequently every Christian sect will find in it the principal truths which they admit; truths proper to conduct us from faith, to the practice of every Christian virtue.’

Yet

Yet somewhat may be adduced to lessen the censure which we have passed. Religious poetry, as we have often observed, sinks, in the copy, greatly below the original; the Muse too walks in fetters, and the greatest praise we can bestow on the best poets, on such subjects, is, that she moves with apparent ease, and supports her chains with grace. They are, however, still chains which keep her on the ground, and check her sublimest flights.—In this volume, some miscellaneous subjects are also introduced.

If the work has any merit, it is an exact conformity 'with holy scripture: those who have read the sacred writings with attention will perceive it; for the sake of others, to whom they are unknown, different passages are added in the margin.' We readily allow, that this may be an apology for the religion of the work, but not for its poetical imagery. Even Milton's genius was blinded by the brilliancy of the inspired penman; and, when on holy ground, the sublimest poet sunk to the humblest and most imperfect copyist.—On the whole, we think that 'the work breathes, in every part, Christian piety, faith, and charity.'

Prefixed to the poem is a 'Discourse on Evangelical Mysticism, and the Use made of it in the Work.' We were pleased with the title, because various passages in the poem seemed to border on mystery. The author properly began to define 'mysticism,' (we must be allowed this word, for no other seems adequate to the author's intention.) 'Reasonable mysticism, says he, as we find it in many excellent works, both ancient and modern, is a slight veil which covers the nakedness of truth, so as to render her more amiable, to excite the attention of those who seek her, to augment the pleasure of those who discover her, and to conceal her from the sight of her enemies.' These veils are, we find, both pleasant and convenient; but, in this sense, mysticism is only a hard word for a metaphor, and a learned term for allegory: we can assure our readers that mons. de la Fléchère means no more.

We shall select, as a specimen, some of the most poetical lines of this poem. They are part of an episode entitled 'the Peace of Paris,' which was printed, under that title, in a separate form: it is but loosely and inartificially connected with the poem before us. The lines we have transcribed are part of a speech by the king of France.

“ Contemplez ce combat, où pleins de nos projets,
De Grasse, Hood et Rodney, conduisent nos sujets,
D'un tonnerre infernal les traits les plus funestes,
De leurs corps emportés ne laissent que des restes,

Quand

Quand de-loin nos carreaux, notre foudre, et les vents,
Font voler le trépas sur cent ramparts mouvants :
Mais, de tous les Démons les Fureurs déchainées,
Semblent, pour nous servir, au combat acharnées,
Lorsque de-près le bronze, et la flamme, et les flots,
Sur l'onde mugissante, assiègent nos héros.

• Alors des tourbillons d'une épaisse fumée ;
Roulent en s'élevant sur la mer enflammée ;
Et de bruyants éclats, qu'annoncent des éclairs,
Effrayant les mortels, font trembler l'univers.
Déjà, pour abreuver mille poissons avides,
Le sang coule, en ruisseaux, dans les plaines liquides :
Des cadavres tronqués et des membres épars ;
Sur un pont tout sanglant gisants de toutes parts,
Offrent sur cent vaisseaux l'horrible boucherie,
Où de mille guerriers s'exerce la furie.
Que de mets odieux, que d'humains massacrés,
Pour les monstres des mers sont déjà préparés !
Des cruels Hottentots le chef anthropophage
Reculeroit d'horreur en voyante ce carnage,

• Déjà mille carreaux sur un vaisseau lancés,
Ont ouvert tous ses flancs par la foudre enfoncés ;
Et quand, par mille cris, au carnage on s'anime,
Il s'abaisse, s'engouffre, et descend dans l'abîme.
Mais le vaisseau tonnant, où ce fier bataillon
Arbore, sans céder, un brûlant pavillon,
Quand son terrible feu par-tout se renouvelle,
Saute et vole en éclats, touché par l'étincelle,
Qui l'embrasant soudain, fait monter sur la mer,
Les feux, l'horreur, l'effroi, le fracas de l'enfer :
Emportés dans les airs par la flamme épandue,
Mille Nauchers brûlés retombent de la nue !
Ah ! sur leurs os brisés, sur ces fumans débris,
Sur ces mourans, ces norts, montrons nous attendris ;
Et que ces coups affreux portés à la patrie,
Nous fassent des Nimrod détester la furie !

In this passage there is something animated and poetical : we must indeed own that our author's spirit soars occasionally to a considerable height, when he has put off his trammels.

In the notes, we find some entertaining and useful disquisitions. Mons. de la Fléchère attacks the modern sceptics with much zeal, and sometimes with success. We cannot speak with sufficient respect of the author's candour, piety, and benevolence.

The Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides, with Samuel Johnson, LL.D. By James Boswell, Esq. 8vo. 6s. Dilly.

IT is not easy to distinguish the different feelings and sentiments, with which we read the 'memorabilia' before us. The original dictator is nearer to Socrates than his reporter to Xenophon; and, instead of a calm pleasing light, which generally illuminates every intricate question, we successively pass from the most illiberal sarcasms, and the most trifling vanity, to judicious remarks, and the most interesting conversations. 'There are often, too, so many words to so little matter,' that we have more than once laid the book down in despair. 'You may read half an hour, without knowing what you have been reading:' yet parts of the volume have highly pleased us. We 'know not that Johnson has said any thing absolutely new; but he said a great deal wonderfully well.' Perhaps there has not occurred a fairer object of criticism than this Journal. The author deserves all our attention; the different parts of it are of very dissimilar merit; and Dr. Johnson and his 'humble bark' are not averse to such discussions. We will 'keep up the shuttlecock,' by striking it 'at both ends,' without the assistance of Mr. Boswell, to whom it may be slightly hinted, that *we* have never permitted friends to review each other's works*.

We need not inform our readers, that this volume contains the different events, and many of the conversations which occurred in Johnson's Tour. We receive a lively, and often a pleasant account both of men and their opinions: one striking feature we cannot sufficiently wonder at, viz. the great attention and respect, sometimes perhaps servility, with which Johnson was treated. It is with other feelings that we contemplate the returns which this literary despot made. Contradiction was not uncommon even to the plainest or the most obvious remarks; and sometimes the most illiberal reflections, and the most unjustifiable sarcasms, supplied its place. We will select a little conversation with the very amiable and respectable Dr. Blacklock, the conclusion of which is so highly illiberal as to excite the greatest disgust.

'Sir William Forbes came to breakfast, and brought with him Dr. Blacklock, whom he introduced to Dr. Johnson, who received him with a most humane complacency, "Dear Dr. Blacklock, I am glad to see you!"—Blacklock seemed to be much surprised, when Dr. Johnson said, "it was easier to him to write poetry than to compose his Dictionary. His mind was

* See page 338.

less on the stretch in doing the one than the other. Besides, composing a Dictionary requires books and a desk. You can make a poem walking in the fields, or lying in bed."—Dr. Blacklock spoke of scepticism in morals and religion, with apparent uneasiness, as if he wished for more certainty. Dr. Johnson, who had thought it all over, and whose vigorous understanding was fortified by much experience, thus encouraged the blind bard to apply to higher speculations, what we all willingly submit to in common life. In short, he gave him more familiarly the able and fair reasoning of Butler's Analogy: "Why, sir, the greatest concern we have in this world, the choice of our profession, must be determined without demonstrative reasoning. Human life is not yet so well known, as that we can have it. And take the case of a man who is ill, I call two physicians: they differ in opinion. I am not to lie down, and die between them: I must do something."—The conversation then turned on atheism; on that horrible book *Système de la Nature*; and on the supposition of an eternal necessity, without design, without a governing mind.—Johnson. "If it were so, why has it ceased? Why don't we see men thus produced around us now? Why, at least, does it not keep pace, in some measure, with the progress of time? If it stops because there is now no need of it, then it is plain there is, and ever has been, an all-powerful intelligence. But stay! (said he, with one of his satyric laughs.) Ha! ha! ha! I shall suppose Scotchmen made necessarily, and Englishmen by choice."

Mr. Boswell remarks that, at St. Andrew's, the professors said but little: indeed we commend them, for that little was not always well received. A striking contrast to that distant respect, was the unconstrained freedom of the officers at Fort George. They delivered their sentiments with that liberality which becomes men, and with an intrepidity suitable to their profession. With them, Dr. Johnson was received as a man of judgment and learning; but he was not addressed with abject flattery, or approached with the distant reverence of a *Delai Lama*. Take a specimen.

* Sir Eyre (Coote) had come from the East Indies by land, through the deserts of Arabia. He told us the Arabs could live five days without victuals, and subsist for three weeks on nothing else but the blood of their camels, who could lose so much of it as would suffice for that time, without being exhausted. He highly praised the virtue of the Arabs; their fidelity if they undertook to conduct any person, and said, they would sacrifice their lives rather than let him be robbed. Dr. Johnson, who is always for maintaining the superiority of civilized over uncivilized men, said, "Why, sir, I can see no superior virtue in this. A sergeant and twelve men, who are my guard, will die, rather than that I shall be robbed."—Colonel Pennington, of the 37th regiment, took up the argument with a good deal of

of spirit and ingenuity.—Pennington. “But the soldiers are compelled to this by fear of punishment.”—Johnson. “Well, sir, the Arabs are compelled by the fear of infamy.”—Pennington. “The soldiers have the same fear of infamy, and the fear of punishment besides: so have less virtue, because they act less voluntarily.”—Lady Coote observed very well, that it ought to be known if there was not, among the Arabs, some punishment for not being faithful on such occasions.’

We do not always meet with this freedom of conversation; it is often chilled by fear, or overwhelmed by opposition. Where it is more unrestrained, we see Johnson in all his native vigour; clear, comprehensive, and majestic. Where he ‘bears his faculties meekly,’ he is indeed a king, a mild beneficent monarch, whose favours enrich those on whom they are bestowed; and, were he not occasionally a tyrant, he might have bound the willing world in his chains. The subject of private and public schools has seldom been more satisfactorily and concisely discussed. This is one of the subjects in which he is not new, but speaks ‘wonderfully well.’

‘Dr. Johnson wondered that a man should send his son so far off, when there were so many good schools in England. He said, “At a great school there is all the splendour and illumination of many minds; the radiance of all is concentrated in each, or at least reflected upon each. But we must own that neither a dull boy, nor an idle boy, will do so well at a great school as at a private one. For at a great school there are always boys enough to do well easily, who are sufficient to keep up the credit of the school; and after whipping being tried to no purpose, the dull or idle boys are left at the end of a class, having the appearance of going through the course, but learning nothing at all. Such boys may do good at a private school, where constant attention is paid to them, and they are watched. So that the question of public or private education is not properly a general one; but whether one or the other is best for my son.”’

We can never be weary of gleaning in such a field. Let us take another specimen, where the conversation is distinguished by the dignity of the speakers. Let not our readers be surprised; men equally eminent have discoursed of greater trifles.

He and my lord (Monboddo) spoke highly of Homer.—Johnson. “He had all the learning of his age. The shield of Achilles shews a nation in war, a nation in peace; harvest sport, nay stealing.”—Monboddo. “Aye, and what we (looking to me) would call a parliament-house scene; a cause pleaded,”—Johnson. “That is a part of the life of a nation in peace. And there are in Homer such characters of heroes, and combinations of qualities of heroes, that the united powers of mankind ever since have not produced any but what are

to be found there."—Monboddo. "Yet no character is described."—Johnson. "No; they all develope themselves. Agamemnon is always a gentleman-like character; he has always βασιλικὸν τι. That the ancients held so, is plain from this; that Euripides, in his Hecuba, makes him the person to interpose."—Monboddo. "The history of manners is the most valuable. I never set a high value on any other history."—Johnson. Nor I; and therefore I esteem biography, as giving us what comes near to ourselves, what we can turn to use."—Boswell. But in the course of general history, we find manners. In wars, we see the dispositions of people, their degrees of humanity, and other particulars.—Johnson. "Yes; but then you must take all the facts to get this: and it is but a little you get."—Monboddo. "And it is that little which makes history valuable."—Bravo! thought I; they agree like two brothers.—Monboddo. "I am sorry, Dr. Johnson, you was not longer at Edinburgh, to receive the homage of our men of learning."—Johnson. "My lord, I received great respect and great kindness."—Boswell. "He goes back to Edinburgh after our tour."—We talked of the decrease of learning in Scotland, and of the "Muses Welcome."—Johnson. "Learning is much decreased in England in my remembrance."—Monboddo. "You, sir, have lived to see its decrease in England, I its extinction in Scotland."

Monboddo. "He, (Warburton) is a great man."—Johnson. "Yes; he has great knowledge—great power of mind. Hardly any man brings greater variety of learning to bear upon his point."—Monboddo. "He is one of the greatest lights of your church."—Johnson. "Why? we are not so sure of his being very friendly to us. He blazes, if you will, but that is not always the steadiest light. Lowth is another bishop who has risen by his learning."

It is not without humour that Johnson praising a young Highland chief for many advantages purely natural, adds, in allusion to Monboddo's system, 'if any man has a tail it is Col.'

Indeed, though we are occasionally disgusted by the circumstances before mentioned, we are frequently entertained, often instructed, and almost always interested.

The peculiarities of Johnson, those little drawbacks, which bring literary eminence nearer to the common rank, are generally mentioned. We delight in them, because they are apologies for ourselves, in a degree, greater in proportion as we rank below the 'rover through the Hebrides.' Johnson's bigotry deserves a severer reprehension: he would not hear Robertson preach, because he would not countenance a Presbyterian-assembly; though he would have heard him preach from a tree. This consistent reasoner, in his subsequent Tour,

at

at one time refused to attend divine service in a house, and at another, assisted in it. His superstitious reverence of consecrated ground, the constitutional disease of a weak mind, we wonder at, and his terror at the sight of human bones excites our pity. His resolution, though considerable, seems not to have been strengthened by regular and steady exercise.

He gave a Highland girl a book, and his choice has excited much attention; but we find the present dictated by necessity, rather than preference. It was Cocker's Arithmetic. He defended the choice of this travelling companion, as he did all his peculiarities. 'Why sir, said he, if you are to have but one book with you upon a journey, let it be a *book of science*. When you have read through a book of entertainment, you know it, and it can do no more for you; but a *book of science* is inexhaustible.' We smiled at the dignified appellation of this honest man's useful elementary performance; but if one who possessed the Herculean form, the loud tone, the sagacious vibration of Johnson, had replied, 'Sir, if you take a book of science, let it be an important one: if you had not known arithmetic before, you could not have learned it in this expedition, to any purpose,' might it not have had as great an effect as many of the speeches here recorded?

Sometimes the most tritling conversations are preserved with a care which should only have distinguished useful and ingenious ones. Johnson's defence, in the following passage, may be pronounced the very dregs of wit, which retain little of the race of the wine, but are either vapid or sour. We shall, however, add Goldsmith's observation, which is highly characteristic, and may make amends for the lees of the Rambler.

'Dr. Johnson and I had each an excellent bed-room. We had a dispute which of us had the best curtains. His were rather the best, being of linen; but I insisted that my bed had the best posts, which was undeniable. "Well, said he; if you have the best posts, we will have you tied to them, and whipped."—I mention this slight circumstance, only to shew how ready he is, even in mere trifles, to get the better of his antagonist, by placing him in a ludicrous view. I have known him sometimes use the same art, when hard pressed, in serious disputation. Goldsmith, I remember, to retaliate for many a severe defeat which he has suffered from him, applied to him a very lively saying in one of Cibber's comedies, which puts this part of his character in a strong light.—"There is no arguing with Johnson; for, if his pistol misses fire, he knocks you down with the but-end of it."

It is not always that Johnson is ill-humoured. When I met the modern representative of a Highland chief, who com-

plained, that if he should preserve arms for his dependants they would rust; we may allow him to add, with a generous indignation, 'Sir, the arms of your ancestors did not rust.' And, in general, we can excuse him, when he corrects forward folly, or petulant ignorance. Of more than one, he speaks with high respect: of Shaw and Macqueen with commendation; and, though we sometimes perceive no great eagerness to admire Scottish literature, yet it is not often that he shuts his eyes on merit, or his ears to real learning. His account of books, and of men, are tinged with prejudices, with party-spirit, and sometimes, perhaps, with the gloom of the moment. We cannot always forgive him in this situation; for the authority of Johnson will fix a wound that is not easily healed. He still persists to call Swift shallow, and Pennant superficial. In the former assertion, he is evidently mistaken; and in the latter, no less so, when that gentleman does not step from his proper path. He may be a superficial antiquary; but he is an enlightened and correct naturalist. He objects against Solander's having called himself a Swedish Laplander. If he had been conversant with northern appellations, he would have easily understood the language; but it must have been otherwise obvious that S. was born in Lapland, of Swedish parents, in that part of the country colonized by Swedes, and distinguished by that name. There are many such errors, which Mr. Boswell should 'have wiped up, and said no more about them.'

It may be expected that the subject of Fingal will be here again examined: we insert the following as, in our opinion, satisfactory evidence.

'I took Fingal down to the parlour in the morning, and tried a test proposed by Mr. Roderick M'Leod, son to Ulinish. Mr. M'Queen had said he had some of the poem in the original. I desired him to mention any passage in the printed book, of which he could repeat the original. He pointed out one in page 50, of the quarto edition, and read the Erse, while Mr. Roderick M'Leod and I looked on the English;—and Mr. M'Leod said, that it was pretty like what Mr. M'Queen had recited. But when Mr. M'Queen read a description of Cuchullin's sword in Erse, together with a translation of it in English verse, by sir James Foulis, Mr. M'Leod said, that was much liker than Mr M'Pherson's translation of the former passage. Mr. M'Queen then repeated in Erse a description of one of the horses in Cuchullin's car. Mr. M'Leod said, Mr. M'Pherson's English was nothing like it.'

We have had occasion already to observe that, though undoubtedly some Erse poems remain, on which M'Pherson
founded

founded his reputed translations, yet the present form, the images, and the descriptions, are very different from the boasted originals.

As it was owing to Johnson's recommendation, that the relation of the escape of *the grandson of James the Second* was collected, we ought to own our obligations to him, for having rescued this part of our history from the uncertain, perishable state of oral tradition. It is well related, and seemingly authentic; but why did the reporter attempt to defend his periphrastic appellation?

Johnson's Latin poetry we have formerly had occasion to mention. In this Journal two odes are preserved, and some smaller pieces. We were surprised to find the translation of the inscription 'Three Poets in Three distant Ages born,' so defective. We will subjoin it.

"Quos laudet vates Graius Romanus et Anglus
Tres tria temporibus secla dedere suis.
Sublime ingenium Graius; Romanus *habebat*
Carmen grande sonans; Anglus utrumque *tulit*.
Nil majus Natura capit: clarare priores
Quæ potuere duos tertius unus habet."

The preterimperfect and perfect tenses are strangely confused, to make at last a very lame verse. His Ode on the Isle of Sky is in the manner of Horace, when in his philosophical and reflecting vein. It has some faults; but is in general excellent. The Sapphics, addressed to Mrs. Thrale, from the same island, are more equably good than any of his other Latin compositions; but they do not rise to the force, the dignity, the majestic grandeur of the former ode.

We cannot easily leave Johnson, but his companion will not forgive us if we pass him without notice; and why should we omit to mention him, whose vivacity has confessedly enlivened the didactic gravity of the literary Colossus,—whose good-humoured vanity generally pleases? Excuse us, Mr. Boswell; though we sometimes smile at your volubility, yet we go with you chearfully along. Life has too many grave paths; let us catch the fluttering butterfly occasionally in the flowery meadows: he will not detain us long, and may deceive the length, sometimes the tediousness of the way.

Mr. Boswell has drawn his own, and Dr. Johnson's character: the last is delineated with much strength, and coloured with justness; the former is drawn from the heart. We recognized him at the first glance. We shall select part of Johnson's character, as a favourable specimen.

'Dr. Samuel Johnson's character, religious, moral, political, and literary, nay his figure and manner are, I believe,
Z 4 more

more generally known than those of almost any man; yet it may not be superfluous here to attempt a sketch of him. Let my readers then remember that he was a sincere and zealous Christian, of high church of England and monarchical principles, which he would not tamely suffer to be questioned; steady and inflexible in maintaining the obligations of piety and virtue, both from a regard to the order of society, and from a veneration for the Great Source of all order; correct, nay stern in his taste; hard to please, and easily offended; impetuous and irritable in his temper; but of a most humane and benevolent heart; having a mind stored with a vast and various collection of learning and knowledge, which he communicated with peculiar perspicuity and force, in rich and choice expression. He united a most logical head with a most fertile imagination, which gave him an extraordinary advantage in arguing; for he could reason close or wide, as he saw best for the moment. He could, when he chose it, be the greatest sophist that ever wielded a weapon in the schools of declamation; but he indulged this only in conversation, for he owned he sometimes talked for victory. He was too conscientious to make error permanent and pernicious, by deliberately writing it. He was conscious of his superiority. He loved praise when it was brought to him; but was too proud to seek for it. He was somewhat susceptible of flattery. His mind was so full of imagery, that he might have been perpetually a poet. It has been often remarked, that in his poetical pieces, which it is to be regretted are so few, because so excellent, his style is easier than in his prose. There is deception in this: it is not easier, but better suited to the dignity of verse; as one may dance with grace, whose motions, in ordinary walking—in the common step, are awkward. He had a constitutional melancholy, the clouds of which darkened the brightness of his fancy, and gave a gloomy cast to his whole course of thinking: yet, though grave and awful in his deportment, when he thought it necessary or proper, he frequently indulged himself in pleasantry and sportive fallies. He was prone to superstition, but not to credulity. Though his imagination might incline him to a belief of the marvellous, and the mysterious, his vigorous reason examined the evidence with jealousy. He had a loud voice, and a slow deliberate utterance, which no doubt gave some additional weight to the sterling metal of his conversation.

The egotisms of the journalist are numerous: he apologizes for them, and says they are related rather as 'keys to what is valuable belonging to others, than for their own sake.' This is a plausible excuse; but unluckily when these keys are examined, we often find no locks. The reporter rather resembles the chamberlain of an inn in ruins; the badge of office is preserved, the keys are numerous, but nothing valuable is discovered on applying them. A good Protestant may rise higher

higher in the comparison, and compare him to the holy successor of St. Peter, who retains the keys of heaven, with little power over the gates. Really, from a regard to Mr. Boswell's fame, we wish the keys, like those of the library at St. Andrew's, may be put in a professor's pocket, and thought of no more. The following passage is philosophical and just. It may deserve a moment's reflection.

'I have often experienced, that scenes through which a man has passed, improve by lying in the memory: they grow mellow. *Adi labores sunt jucundi*. This may be owing to comparing them with present listless ease. Even harsh scenes acquire a softness by length of time; and some are like very loud sounds, which do not please, or at least do not please so much, till you are removed to a certain distance. They may be compared to strong coarse pictures, which will not bear to be viewed near. Even pleasing scenes improve by time, and seem more exquisite in recollection, than when they were present; if they have not faded to dimness in the memory. Perhaps there is so much evil in every human enjoyment, when present,—so much dross mixed with it, that it requires to be refined by time; and yet I do not see why time should not melt away the good and the evil in equal proportions;—why the shade should decay, and the light remain in preservation.'

The reason of this seems to be, that we compare the former with the present times, the pure gold with the same metal in its ore. The good and evil do not melt in equal proportions, because of the different impressions which they have made. The deductions from a pleasing scene are often more imaginary than real: on the contrary, in recollecting scenes of deep distress, we overlook the consolations that supported us at the time; for then *they* were equally transitory. The whole of this subject, which forms an useful part of the history of the human mind, may be much illustrated by Hartley's Theory of Association.

But it is now time to leave Dr. Johnson and his journalist: in spite of the errors which we have so freely pointed out, in spite of a few Scotticisms, which the journalist, with all his anxiety to write '*high English*,' has not been able to detect, in spite of a few laughable attempts to palliate Johnson's errors, we must recommend this Journal as a pleasant, lively, and sometimes useful companion.

Critical Essays on some of the Poems, of several English Poets: By John Scott, Esq. With an Account of the Life and Writings of the Author; by Mr. Hoole. 8vo. 5s. 3d. in Boards. Philips.

THESE Essays are preceded by the Life of Mr. Scott, a man who was not less distinguished by the blameless simplicity of his manners, than the warmth of his friendships, and

and the activity of his benevolence. We once by speaking perhaps too lightly, of the ornaments of his works, attracted his displeasure. When the favourite is attacked, nothing is well; and he then probably first found, that the warmth of our praise was not quite consonant to his own feelings. These little disputes, the misfortunes of those who dare to judge without receiving, with implicit reverence, the dictates of fashion, and sometimes of prejudice, are now at an end. We feel no rancour for the past, and can 'curse' the jest and the verse,

' how well so e'er it flow,
That tends to make *one honest man our foe.*'

But while we apologize for one error, we must not meanly sacrifice opinions, the result of mature deliberation. We cannot think more highly than before of Mr. Scott's poetical merits, or rather of his works. The *limæ labor & mora* seem to have destroyed each characteristic relief, the glowing thought, and the ardent language of the heart.

The Life of Mr. Scott is written with an elegant neatness by Mr. Hoole; but with no peculiar force and energy. Perhaps we are fastidious in biography; for we wish that each distinguishing feature of the mind should be carefully delineated. To common observers, there is a wonderful similarity in things which, when accurately examined, differ in many respects. We see enough to admire in the general conduct of his life, but we wish also to be instructed in somewhat else: too much is generally sacrificed to a trite, but a humane maxim, 'de mortuis nil nisi bonum.'

An anonymous author, to whom we owe our thanks for his candour, while we are instructed by the justice of his remarks, begs to point out to our attention, the short account of Mr. Scott's friend, the rev. Mr. Turner. If Mr. Hoole had known him, he thinks that he would not have passed him with faint praise. We own, we do not think it faint; and shall therefore transcribe it.

'He possessed considerable natural abilities, and much acquired knowledge, with a candid disposition and elegant taste; and by the general tenor of his correspondence with Scott, appears to have been always a young man of a religious and studious turn.'

If our correspondent, who appears to have known him well, is not deceived, 'his acquisitions were not more considerable in themselves, than extraordinary in their nature:' they chiefly consisted in mathematics and philosophy; but, if he had not particularly excelled in these, his other attainments would have

have secured him, when known, extensive fame. He was, however, born to 'bloom unseen;' for it seems that his great benevolence would not let him build on another's reputation; and his unconquerable modesty probably forbade him to raise a structure on his own. Our correspondent must excuse us from enlarging farther; the zeal and warmth of his praises strongly indicate some little partiality.

The Critical Essays contained in this volume are, I. Cooper's Hill, by Denham, II. Lycidas, by Milton. III. Windsor Forest, by Pope. IV. Grongar Hill, by Dyer. V. Ruins of Rome, the same. VI. Oriental Eclogues, by Collins. VII. Church Yard Elegy, by Gray. VIII. Deserted Village, by Goldsmith. IX. Seasons, by Thomson.

Mr. Scott, in the minuteness and rigour of his examination, approaches to the inquisitorial strictness of Dr. Johnson; and so fixed is his opinion of its necessity, that he seems to think a little *jeu d'esprit*, entitled a 'Criticism on the Elegy in a Country Church-yard,' a serious performance. This exactness, however, is sometimes misapplied, and sometimes leads him into error. In the first Essay, for instance, on Windsor Forest, he makes the following observation.

'The apostrophe to Windsor, is abrupt and awkward; and contains matter which will surely find few advocates for its propriety or elegance. To *heighten* an object, is generally understood to augment or increase it; but *meekness* certainly cannot be augmented or increased by *majestic grace*: the reverse would have been right; *majestic grace* may be diminished by *meekness*. What subject was designed by the obscure and affected appellation, *pompous load*, seems doubtful; probably it was the castle;

"Windsor the next (where Mars and Venus dwell,
Beauty with strength) above the valley *swells*
Into my eye, and doth itself present
With such an *easy*, and *unforc'd* ascent,
That no stupendous precipice denies
Access, no horror turns away our eyes:
But such a rise as doth at once *invite*
A pleasure and a reverence from the sight.
Thy mighty master's emblem, in whose face
Sat meekness, *heighten'd* with majestic grace;
Such seems thy gentle *height*, made only proud
To be the basis of that *pompous load*,
Than which a nobler weight no mountain bears,
But Atlas only, which supports the spheres."

Our author does not perceive that 'majestic grace' is a corporeal quality, and 'meekness' a mental one; that either is not inconsistent with the other. In another place, Mr. Scott would amend the two first lines of Dyer's Grongar-Hill, in a manner

manner that does not destroy the principal objection to it, viz. that it is not English.

' Silent *nymph* with curious eye
Who at purple evening *lie*.'

We certainly ought to read ' nymphs,' or ' lyest.' We are glad, however, to find, from an incorrect first copy, that this nymph is Silence. Poets, in their inspirations, often think their readers as wise as themselves.

We shall select a passage, as an instance of the style of criticism which Mr. Scott has employed. It is taken also from the remarks on ' Windsor Forest.'

' The first six lines propose the subject, and compliment the author's friend, Granville lord Lansdown. They are succeeded by these:

" The *groves* of Eden, vanish'd now so long,
Live in description and look green in song :
These, were my breast inspir'd with *equal flame*,
Like them in beauty, should be like in fame.
Here *bills* and *vales*, the woodland and the plain ;
Here *earth* and *water* seem to *strive* again ;
Not chaos like together crush'd and bruise'd,
But like the world *harmoniously confus'd* :
Where *order* in variety we see,
And where though all things *differ*, all agree."

Two passages in Cooper's Hill, quoted in the foregoing remarks on that piece, are here closely copied. Profusion of thought seldom fails to create absurdity. The place that was *compared to Eden*, surely needed no other comparison to exaggerate its beauty ; and *to compare it to the world at large*, must certainly produce an anti-climax. That which was like Eden, could not be like chaos ; the mention of chaos was, therefore, totally unnecessary ; nor is it easy to conceive how that which was even *HARMONIOUSLY confus'd*, could have *ORDER*. The thought, however, is not more exceptionable than the expression. General meaning may be evident, where precision of language is wanting. Pope designed to say, that if he possessed Milton's poetical power, Windsor should be as famous as Eden ; but he has not said so. The groves of Eden are the only object to which the comparative adjective *equal* can relate ; and it is nonsense to say, '*a flame is equal to a grove*.' Milton's *flame* would have been sense, and would not have injured the dignity or music of the verse. The fifth and sixth lines have a redundancy in one part, and a puerile abruptness in the other. When *bills, vales, &c.* had been particularized, it was superfluous to comprise them in the term *earth*. If the poet means to say that " here, as in Eden, earth and water seem to contend in affording pleasure," his words are not sufficiently extensive ; '*earth and water strive again* ;" a cynical hypercritick would probably ask,

ask, "when did they strive before, and what do they strive for now?" *Crushed and bruised* is a prosaism and a perissology; for what is crushed must of course be bruised. The general congruity of a number of subjects individually dissimilar, might perhaps have been better pointed out, than by observing, that though all things *differed*, all things *agreed*. In short, the three last couplets of the quotation are so faulty, that had they been omitted, the poem would have been improved by the omission.

In this way admired poems are examined: we have hinted, that our author is sometimes mistaken; and we have chosen this part of the Essays to show how just observations are sometimes mixed with faults: we shall make no other remark than the distinctions in printing. We own, that when, in some instances, he has detected a real fault, we wished to have remained ignorant of it: these splendid errors are worth whole pages of measured regularity.

In the Essay on Gray's Elegy, Mr. Scott has proposed alterations in the arrangement of stanzas, and in some of the lines: their length prevents us from selecting any, but in general they destroy the force of the language, and of the delusion, by introducing an unnatural regularity. Mr. Scott has shown that Gray has followed a plan; but we have often had occasion to observe how delusive the task is, to adapt a plan to the designs of another. If Gray had one, we think it not the least of his merits, that he has concealed it so carefully.

We shall select another passage, on the subject of Lycidas; because, in our review of Mr. Warton's edition, we observed, that it probably was not the effusion of real grief.

'When our above mentioned ingenious critick thinks that Lycidas cannot be considered as an effusion of real grief, he seems to have mistaken the nature of the poem. There is an anxiety from apprehension of losing a beloved object; and there is a grief immediately subsequent to its actual loss, which cannot be expressed but in the shortest and simplest manner. There is a grief softened by time, which can recapitulate past pleasures in all their minutiae of circumstance and situation, and can select such images as are proper to the kind of composition, wherein it chuses to convey itself. It was no sudden impetus of passion, but this mellowed sorrow, that effused the verses now under consideration.'

This comes very near *our* position. Mellowed grief, however it may have delighted in reflecting on former scenes, would not have turned either to the woods or pastures, for its personages. The following is not a correct answer.

'Cowley speaks of Hervey (the author refers to Johnson's remark), in *propria persona*, Milton is *pro tempore* a rustic poet;
one

one therefore must naturally draw his images from the business of the study, and the other from the business of the field. It seems not very easy to discover what idea of tenderness is excited by Cowley, the collegian, in his mention of the literary occupations of his fellow-student, which is not also excited by Milton, the supposed shepherd, in his mention of the rural occupations of his field companion. Whatever there is of pathos in either, results from the recollection of friendship terminated by death.

There is no distinct idea of tenderness in either, when absolutely considered; but the interest is entirely derived from the usual occupation of those we loved. In the one case it is a natural, in the other an artificial reflection; and real grief cannot descend to refinements.

We must now leave Mr. Scott, whose manes we wish not to disturb by the freedom of our remarks. His Essays are not without merit, in the mode of criticism which he has pursued. Some peculiar words and phrases do not produce a pleasing effect; but, on the whole, this volume may be read by an ardent young poet with advantage.

A History of the late Siege of Gibraltar. By John Drinkwater, Captain of the late Seventy-second Regiment. 4to. 1l. 7s. in Boards. Johnson.

THE late siege of Gibraltar is one of the most memorable occurrences in the history of military achievements, and will continue to reflect lustre on the British arms to the remotest posterity. A faithful and particular account of it, therefore, cannot fail of proving acceptable to all who are interested in the glory of their country. But public utility, as well as the spirit of national honour, contributes to render a narrative of this celebrated transaction an object of general concern. The vigorous efforts of the enemy, and the glorious exertions of the besieged, will both be transmitted by this history; and future governors may thence learn the means of opposing, as well as of ascertaining, the probable issue of any similar attempt.

This work begins with the history of Gibraltar, and a description of the garrison; but as these subjects have been treated by other writers, especially by colonel James, a few years ago, we shall commence our account of the present history with the state of the garrison in June 1779, when all intercourse was stopped between the fortress of Gibraltar and the Spaniards. It appears that at this time, the number of troops in Gibraltar amounted to five thousand three hundred and eighty-two men. The objects now to be considered were,
how

how to procure constant supplies of provision from Barbary, and in what manner the correspondence between England and Gibraltar should be conducted. On the sixteenth of July the enemy blocked up the port with a squadron of men of war, which anchored in the bay of Algeziras, where being judiciously arranged, and keeping a vigilant look-out, the garrison became closely blockaded.

On the twenty-sixth, the enemy began to form a camp on the plain below St. Roch, about three miles from the garrison. Fifty tents were pitched, and a detachment of cavalry and infantry soon after took possession of the ground. Here they were daily reinforced with additional regiments; and large parties were constantly employed in landing ordnance and military stores. In consequence of these preparations all the horses, except those belonging to field and staff officers, were ordered to be turned out of the garrison, unless the owners, on inspection, had a thousand pounds of feed for each horse; and to enforce this order by example, the governor directed one of his own horses to be shot.

Towards the middle of August, the blockade became more strict and severe: the army was in force before the place, and their plan seemed to be, to reduce Gibraltar by famine. Their squadron, under admiral Barcelo, who commanded in the bay, could prevent succours being thrown into the garrison by neutral vessels; whilst their grand fleet, united with that of France, would be superior to any which Great Britain could equip, in her then embarrassed situation. Every circumstance considered, the author informs us that this scheme was specious; and that, had not the garrison fortunately received some supplies in April 1779, the troops must have been reduced to the greatest distress, and might probably have been in imminent danger, before the ministry could dispatch a fleet to their relief. The situation of the troops was every day becoming more critical: only forty head of cattle were now in the place; and from the vigilance of the enemy, there was little prospect of occasional supplies from Barbary. The inhabitants of Gibraltar had been warned in time to provide against the calamities which now impended. The standing orders of the garrison specified, that every inhabitant, even in time of peace, should have in store six months provisions; yet by far the greater number had neglected this precaution. On this account, the most of those unfortunate people were now compelled to seek for subsistence by quitting the place.

Still the enemy continued landing stores on the beach, and covered carts were constantly going from Point Mala to the laboratory-tents, supposed to be laden with shot. In the end
of

of August, their camp consisted of two lines, independently of the Catalonians, extending from Point Mala, in an oblique direction, into the country, towards the place called the Queen of Spain's Chair. In the mean time, the garrison of Gibraltar was no less actively employed in their fortifications. Their engineers were daily strengthening them with palisades, &c. Traverses were also erected in different parts; and the regiments now began to practise grenade exercise, whilst the governor kept a watchful eye to the enemy's operations, molesting their workmen as much as possible. Proper precautions were taken in the town to guard as much as possible against a bombardment, which there was the strongest reason to expect. The pavement of the streets, in the north part of the town, was ploughed up; the towers of the most conspicuous buildings were taken down, and traverses laid in different places, to render the communications more secure.

In the beginning of October the enemy's army, according to the intelligence received in the garrison, consisted of sixteen battalions of infantry, and twelve squadrons of horse, which, if the regiments were complete, would amount to about fourteen thousand men.

In the month of November, provisions of every kind became very scarce and exorbitantly dear in the garrison. The price of mutton was from three shillings to three and six pence a pound; veal four shillings; pork from two shillings to two and six pence; a pig's head nineteen shillings; ducks from fourteen shillings to eighteen shillings a couple; and a goose a guinea. Fish was equally high; and vegetables were with difficulty got for any money; but bread, the great essential of life and health, was the article most wanted. About this period, we are told, the governor made trial what quantity of rice would suffice a single person for twenty-four hours, and actually lived himself eight days on four ounces of rice per day. This gallant veteran, sir George Eliot, as the author informs us, is remarkable for an abstemious mode of living, seldom tasting any thing but vegetables, simple puddings, and water. He is, notwithstanding, very hale, and uses constant exercise. But the small portion just mentioned, the author properly observes, would be far from sufficient for a working man kept continually employed, and in a climate where the heat necessarily demands very refreshing nourishment to support nature under fatigue.

In January 1780, the state of the garrison with regard to provisions, was become yet more distressful.

A Neapolitan polacre was luckily driven under our guns on the 8th, and obliged to come in. On board we found about six

six thousand bushels of barley, a cargo (circumstanced as we were) of inestimable value. The bakers had long been limited to the quantity of bread daily to be issued to the inhabitants, and centries were placed at the wickets where it was delivered, to prevent confusion and riot. The strongest, nevertheless, had the advantage; so that numbers of women, children, and infirm persons, returned to their miserable habitations, frequently without tasting, for some days, that chief, and perhaps necessary support of life.

The inhabitants were not the only sufferers in this scene of distress; many officers and soldiers had families to support out of the pittance received from the victualling-office. A soldier, with his wife and three children, would inevitably have been starved to death, had not the generous contribution of his corps relieved his family: one woman actually died through want; and many were so enfeebled, that it was not without great attention they recovered: thistles, dandelion, wild leeks, &c. were for some time the daily nourishment of numbers. Few supplies arriving from Barbary, and there appearing little prospect of relief from England, famine began to present itself with its attendant horrors: had there been a glimmering hope of assistance from home, it would have enabled many to support themselves under this accumulation of distress; but, alas! we seemed entirely abandoned to our fortune.

Not only bread, but every article necessary to the support of life, was hard to be procured, and only to be purchased at exorbitant prices. Veal, mutton, and beef, sold from two shillings and six pence, to four shillings per pound; fresh pork, from two to three shillings; salt beef and pork, one shilling and three pence per pound; fowls, eighteen shillings per couple; ducks, a guinea; fire wood, five shillings per hundred weight; a pint of milk and water, one shilling and three pence. Vegetables were extremely scarce: a small cabbage cost one shilling and six pence; and a small bunch of the outer leaves, sold for five pence: Irish butter, two shillings and six pence per pound; eggs, sixpence each; and candles, two shillings and six pence per pound. The best fish was most exorbitantly dear, considering on what terms the garrison was formerly supplied. It is natural to suppose, that the rock being almost surrounded with the sea, we should have a constant resource in this article; the contrary was, however, the case: our fishermen were foreigners, and being under no regulation, they exacted, by degrees, most extravagant sums, for what some months before we should have looked upon with disgust.

It does the highest honour to the garrison of Gibraltar, that when the governor was under the necessity of curtailing the weekly allowance of provisions, the men received it without the smallest appearance of discontent. We find, that in all the vicissitudes of this trying period, they constantly submitted,

without murmuring, to every necessary regulation, however unpleasing. We cannot avoid remarking, as a singular event, which happened about the period we are speaking of, that a female was the first person wounded at this extraordinary siege.

After the supplies which were brought by sir George Brydges Rodney, the garrison might be considered in a very perfect state of defence. The scurvy indeed had begun to affect many, and threatened to become more general; but the besieged flattered themselves that the enemy would give up the intention of starving them to a surrender, and, by relaxing in their vigilance at sea, might afford the British troops an opportunity of receiving constant supplies of those articles most essential to health. But in September, the situation of the garrison was again become extremely interesting. The blockade was, if possible, more strict and vigilant than before. Chains of small cruisers were stationed across the straits, at the entrance of the bay, and on every side of the rock. What little assistance the garrison received came from Minorca; but the supplies were so trifling, and sold at such enormous prices, that few were able to purchase them; besides that the scurvy began to gain great ascendancy over the efforts of the surgeons. While they were in this situation, some of the navy-boats fortunately boarded a dogger, which had got, during the fog, pretty near the rock. She proved to be a Dane from Malaga, laden with lemons and oranges, which the governor immediately purchased, and distributed to the garrison.

‘ Few articles, says our author, ever arrived more seasonably than this cargo of fruit. The scurvy had made dreadful ravages in our hospitals, and more were daily confined: many, however, unwilling to yield to the first attacks, persevered in their duty to its more advanced stages. It was, therefore, not uncommon at this period, to see men, who some months before were hale and equal to any fatigue, supporting themselves to their posts upon crutches, and even with that assistance scarcely able to move along. The most fatal consequences, in short, to the garrison, were to be apprehended from this terrible disorder, when this Dane was happily directed to our relief.

‘ The lemons were immediately administered to the sick, who devoured them with the greatest avidity. The salutary effects were almost instantaneous: in a few days, men who had been considered as irrecoverable, left their beds to congratulate their comrades on the prospect of once more becoming useful to their country.

‘ Mr. Cairncross, a surgeon of great eminence, who was present at this time and the remaining part of the siege, has favoured

voured me with the following information relative to the scurvy, and the mode of using this vegetable acid; which, with his permission, I insert for the benefit of those who may hereafter be under similar circumstances.

“ The scurvy which attacked the garrison of Gibraltar, differed in no respect from that disease usually contracted by sailors in long voyages; and of which the immediate cause seemed to be the subsisting for a length of time upon salted provisions only, without a sufficient quantity of vegetables, or other acescent foods. The circumstance related in the voyage of that celebrated circumnavigator, the late lord Anson, of consolidated fractures disuniting, and the callosity of the bone being perfectly dissolved, occurred frequently in our hospitals: and old sores and wounds opened anew from the nature of the disorder.

“ Various antiscorbutics were used without success, such as acid of vitriol, sour crout, extract of malt, essence of spruce, &c. but the only specific was fresh lemons and oranges, given liberally; or when they could not be procured, the preserved juice in such quantities, from one to four ounces per diem, as the patient could bear. Whilst the lemons were found, from one to three were administered each day, as circumstances directed. The juice given to those in the most malignant state, was sometimes diluted with sugar, wine, or spirits; but the convalescents took it without dilution. Women and children were equally affected, nor were the officers exempted from this alarming distemper. It became almost general at the commencement of the winter season, owing to the cold and moisture; and in the beginning of spring, when vegetables were scarce.

“ The juice was preserved by adding to sixty gallons of expressed liquor, about five or ten gallons of brandy, which kept it in so wholesome a state, that several casks were opened in good condition at the close of the siege. The old juice was not, however, so speedily efficacious as the fruit, though, by persevering longer in its use, it seldom failed.”

In April, 1781, the garrison received a seasonable relief by the arrival of the fleet under admiral Darby; but the enemy, on the land side, were far from being idle spectators of this event; and every circumstance confirmed the opinion that they now intended opening on the fortress. Accordingly, the same day, a smart fire commenced upon the garrison, from all the batteries, which amounted to a hundred and fourteen pieces of artillery. The cannonade was instantly returned from the garrison; but the artillery had orders to disregard the enemies lines, and notice only the St. Carlos's battery, which consequently soon slackened its fire. Between one and two o'clock the fire of the enemy abated; but about five they

again opened, and continued, without intermission, the remainder of the day and the succeeding night.

The evening of the fourteenth of April, the enemy's shells set fire to a wine-house in the green-market; and before the fire could be extinguished, four or five houses were burnt to the ground. Detachments from the regiments and guards in town were immediately ordered to quench the flames; but the enemy's cannonade became so brisk, that great confusion ensued. This event appears to have been productive of great irregularities among the troops. Some died of immediate intoxication, and several were with difficulty recovered, by oils and tobacco-water, from a dangerous state of ebriety.

The extreme distress, says our author, to which the soldiers had been reduced by the mercenary conduct of the hucksters and liquor-dealers, in hoarding, or rather concealing their stocks, to enhance the price of what was exposed for sale, raised amongst the troops (when they discovered the great quantities of various articles in the private stores) a spirit of revenge. The first and second days, they conducted themselves with great propriety; but on the eve of the third day, their discipline was overpowered by their inebriation; and from that instant, regardless of punishment, or the intreaties of their officers, they were guilty of many, and great excesses. The enemy's shells soon forced open the secret recesses of the merchants; and the soldiers instantly availed themselves of the opportunity to seize upon the liquors, which they conveyed to haunts of their own. Here, in parties, they barricaded their quarters against all opposers, and, insensible of their danger, regaled themselves with the spoils. Several skirmishes occurred amongst them, which if not seasonably put a stop to, by the interference of officers, might have ended in serious consequences.

'It did not appear, through all their intemperance, that these irregularities arose from any cause so much as a spirit of revenge against the merchants. A great quantity of liquor, &c. was wantonly destroyed; and, in some cases, incredible profusion prevailed. Among other instances of caprice and extravagance, I recollect that of roasting a pig by a fire made of cinnamon. The offenders were at first confined and reprimanded, which the governor judged would have a greater effect than punishment; but relapsing a second time, he was convinced his lenity was disregarded; and he was, therefore, compelled to use more rigorous measures.'

The batteries of the garrison, especially at Willis's, were greatly damaged by the vigorous bombardment of the enemy. The ordnance had been withdrawn on the artillery's ceasing to fire; but the merlons had suffered much, and some of the cannon were dismounted and injured. The lines were almost
choaked

choaked up with loose stones and rubbish, brought down by the shot from the rock above; the traverses along the line were greatly injured; and the town every day approached fast towards a final dissolution.

The enemy's cannonade and bombardment continued to be wide and scattered, apparently having no particular object. Shells were lavishly expended; and, what was very singular, many of those which fell blind, our author informs us, contained, on examination, a vast quantity of sand mixed with the powder. For this unusual circumstance the garrison could not otherwise account, than by supposing the powder was stolen by the people in their laboratories.

On the night of the twenty-third of May, the gun and mortar-boats of the enemy renewed their attack, which, in its consequences, was more dreadful than any that the garrison had hitherto experienced. The silence observed by the garrison during their preceding visits, emboldened them, on this occasion, to advance so near, that the troops in the fortresses could distinctly hear the Spanish officers give orders to the men, who frequently, in their own language, cried out to the besieged to 'take care.'

In November, the firing from both sides varied as objects offered. The period towards the end of the month was the crisis which the governor considered as proper to frustrate all the views of the enemy, by destroying those stupendous works, the construction of which had cost them such immense labour and expence. By some deserters, who came in on the 20th, he was acquainted with the inactivity which prevailed throughout the enemy's camp, and with the strength of their advanced guards. Lulled into security by their superiority of force, they never suspected the garrison capable of attempting so bold and hazardous an enterprise. We are informed, that the governor never imparted to the garrison his important design until the evening in which it was put in execution. A sally was accordingly made from the garrison, on the night of the twenty-sixth of November, and was executed with a degree of success beyond the most sanguine expectation. The ardour of the assailants was irresistible. The enemy on every side gave way, abandoning, with the utmost precipitation, those works which had cost them so much expence, and employed so many months to complete. The exertions of the workmen and artillery of the garrison are said to have been wonderful. The batteries were soon in a state for the fire-faggots to operate; and the flames spread with astonishing rapidity in every part. The author informs us, that the column of fire-smoke which rolled from the works, beautifully illuminated the

roops and neighbouring objects; forming altogether a *coup d'oeil*, impossible to be described.

The court of Madrid having hitherto found all her attempts, both by sea and land, for the recovery of Gibraltar, totally ineffectual, determined to prosecute this favourite object with a vigour which, they flattered themselves, could not fail of ensuring success. No expence being spared, the labour of the nation was exhausted in preparations for this important enterprise. The command of the Spanish troops was now bestowed on the Duc de Crillon, who had lately returned from the conquest of Fort St. Philip, in Minorca. In September, 1782, the batteries and works, erected by the enemy on the land-side, were strong and stupendous, mounting two hundred pieces of heavy ordnance, and protected by an army of near forty thousand men, commanded by a victorious and active general, and animated with the immediate presence of two princes of the royal blood of France, with a number of other dignified personages. The hostile armament by sea was proportionable to the vast preparations by land. It consisted of forty-seven sail of the line, including three inferior two-deckers; ten battering ships, deemed invincible, carrying two hundred and twelve guns; innumerable frigates, xebecs, bomb-ketches, cutters, gun and mortar-boats, besides smaller craft for disembarking men. In a word, the fortress, which had so long and so bravely withstood all the assaults of the Spanish power, seemed now on the point of being devoted to inevitable destruction. The following is the author's account of the operations immediately subsequent to this awful period.

‘The ten battering-ships, after leaving the men of war, wore to the north; and a little past nine o'clock, bore down in admirable order for their several stations; the admiral in a two-decker, mooring about nine hundred yards off the king's bastion; the others successively taking their places to the right and left of the flag-ship, in a masterly manner; the most distant being about eleven or twelve hundred yards from the garrison. Our artillery allowed the enemy every reasonable advantage, in permitting them, without molestation, to choose their distance; but as soon as the first ship dropped her anchors, which was about a quarter before ten o'clock, that instant our firing commenced. The enemy were completely moored in little more than ten minutes. The cannonade then became, in a high degree, tremendous. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from their land-batteries, the battering-ships; and, on the other hand, from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a scene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is sufficient to say, that four hundred pieces of the heaviest artillery were playing at

at the same moment : an instance which has scarcely occurred in any siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruction.

' After some hours cannonade, the battering-ships were found to be no less formidable than they had been represented. Our heaviest shells often rebounded from their tops, whilst the thirty-two-pound shot seemed incapable of making any visible impression upon their hulls. Frequently we flattered ourselves they were on fire ; but no sooner did the smoke appear, than with the most persevering intrepidity, men were observed applying water, from their engines within, to those places whence the smoke issued. These circumstances, with the prodigious cannonade which they maintained, gave us reason to imagine that the attack would not be so soon decided, as, from our recent success against their land-batteries, we had fondly expected. Even the artillery themselves, at this period, had their doubts of the effect of red-hot shot, which began to be used about twelve, but were not general till between one and two o'clock. The enemy's cannon, at the commencement, were too much elevated ; but about noon their firing was powerful, and well directed. Our casualties then became numerous ; particularly on those batteries north of the King's bastion, which were warmly annoyed by the enemy's flanking and reverse fire from the land. Though so vexatiously annoyed from the isthmus, our artillery totally disregarded their opponents in that quarter, directing their sole attention to the battering-ships, the furious and spirited opposition of which, served to excite our people to more animated exertions. A fire, more tremendous if possible than ever, was therefore directed from the garrison. Incessant showers of hot balls, carcasses, and shells of every species, flew from all quarters ; and as the masts of several of the ships were shot away, and the rigging of all in great confusion, our hopes of a favourable and speedy decision began to revive.

' About noon, the mortar-boats and bomb-ketches attempted to second the attack from the ships ; but the wind having changed to the south-west, and blowing a smart breeze, with a heavy swell, they were prevented taking a part in the action. The same reason also hindered our gun-boats from flanking the battering-ships from the southward.

' For some hours, the attack and defence were so equally well supplied, as scarcely to admit any appearance of superiority in the cannonade on either side. The wonderful construction of the ships seemed to bid defiance to the powers of the heaviest ordnance. In the afternoon, however, the face of things began to change considerably. The smoke which had been observed to issue from the upper part of the flag-ship appeared to prevail, notwithstanding the constant application of water ; and the admiral's second was perceived to be in the same condition. Confusion was now apparent on board several of the vessels ;

and by the evening their cannonade was considerably abated. About seven or eight it almost totally ceased, excepting from one or two ships to the northward, which, from their distance, had suffered little injury.

When their firing began to slacken, various signals were made from the southernmost ships; and, as the evening advanced, many rockets were thrown up, to inform their friends (as we afterwards learned) of their extreme danger and distress. These signals were immediately answered, and several boats were seen to row round the disabled ships. Our artillery, at this period, must have caused dreadful havock amongst them. An indistinct clamour, with lamentable cries and groans, proceeded (during the short intervals of cessation) from all quarters; and a little before midnight, a wreck floated in, upon which were twelve men, who only, out of three-score which were on board their launch, had escaped. These circumstances convinced us that we had gained an advantage over the enemy; yet we did not conceive that the victory was so complete as the succeeding morning evinced. Our firing was, therefore, continued, though with less vivacity: but as the artillery, from such a hard-fought day, exposed to the intense heat of a warm sun, in addition to the harassing duties of the preceding night, were much fatigued, and as it was impossible to foresee what new objects might demand their service the following day, the governor, when the enemy's fire abated, permitted, about six in the evening, the majority of the officers and men to be relieved by a picquet of a hundred men from the marine-brigade, under the command of lieutenant Trentham; and officers, and non-commissioned officers of the artillery, were stationed on the different batteries, to direct the sailors in the mode of firing the hot shot.

About an hour after midnight the battering-ship which had suffered the greatest injury, and which had been frequently on fire the preceding day, was completely in flames; and by two o'clock, she appeared as one continued blaze from stem to stern. The ship to the southward was also on fire, but did not burn with so much rapidity. The light thrown out on all sides by the flames, enabled the artillery to point the guns with the utmost precision, whilst the rock, and neighbouring objects, were highly illuminated; forming, with the constant flashes of our cannon, a mingled scene of sublimity and terror. Between three and four o'clock, six other of the battering-ships indicated the efficacy of red-hot shot; and the approaching day now promised us one of the completest defensive victories on record.

We are informed that the enemy, in this action, had more than three hundred pieces of heavy ordnance in play, whilst the garrison had only eighty cannon, seven mortars, and nine howitzers. Upwards of eight thousand three hundred rounds, (more than half of which were hot shot) and seven hundred
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and sixteen barrels of powder, were expended by our artillery. What quantity of ammunition was used by the enemy, could never be ascertained.

The length to which this article has already extended, prevents us from continuing an account of the operations to the end of the siege. We must, however, acknowledge, that the history of this memorable enterprise is related by the author with great perspicuity and minuteness. It is a subject well suited to the habits of a military gentleman; and the present historian may have the peculiar satisfaction to reflect, that the subject of his narrative is, perhaps, the most honourable to the valour of this country, of all the glorious achievements in war that have immortalized the British name.

An Analysis of the Political History of India. By Richard Joseph Sullivan, Esq. The Second Edition, considerably enlarged. 8vo. 4s. 6d. in Boards. Becket.

AS all rational polity must be founded on circumstances, an exact knowledge of these is the only certain means by which the government of any country can be conducted with ability and success. To obtain this knowledge, and especially to discover the remote, as well as the immediate causes of public transactions, demands the minutest enquiry, and the most attentive observation. Researches of such a nature will often prove difficult, even when the objects of enquiry lie near us; but if they be situated at a great distance, and we can judge of them only from information, the attainment of truth and certainty must become in proportion more arduous. In the late war with her colonies, Great Britain, we believe, experienced the fatal consequences arising from this fallacious resource; and we ought, therefore, to guard, with all possible care, against the misrepresentations both of ignorance and deceit, in what relates to our affairs in the East Indies. Mr. Sullivan, if we are not mistaken, lived several years in that country, with the history and state of which, he appears to be extremely well acquainted; and from the amiable, as well as respectable character he bears among all who know him, we have the strongest reason to confide in the fidelity of his observations.

The work commences with the history of the European settlements in India, of all which the author delivers a distinct and accurate account; not omitting previously to inform his readers of the channels through which Indian commodities were imported into Europe, before the discovery of a passage into those seas by the celebrated Vasco de Gama. The following

following extract from this part of the volume will place the author's abilities, as a writer, in a very favourable light.

' The East, for many centuries before our Christian æra, poured forth its riches to the uttermost extent of the then known civilized parts of the creation ; but to no country in such profuse abundance as to that of Egypt. How this traffic was carried on in those days, when maritime knowlege was still but in its infancy, is at this moment a matter more worthy of the investigation of the antiquary than the historian. Suffice it, that their commerce appears to have been founded upon the broadest basis of mutual and general utility, and that their exports and imports were nearly what they are at this day. Happily situated for an intercourse of that nature, the industry of the Egyptians led them to partake of all its benefits. By the conveniency of their harbours in the Red Sea, they engrossed the exclusive privilege of purchasing the commodities of India ; and by their ports on the Mediterranean, they were enabled to diffuse them among the Greeks and the Romans at an exorbitant degree of profit.

' In this manner the trade with Asia was long carried on. At length, upon the destruction of the Roman empire, that mighty fabric of ambition, and the subsequent establishment of its warlike but uncivilized invaders, a stop was put to the continuance of so flourishing a commerce ; nor did it again rear its head, until the Venetians, situated on the Adriatic gulph, boldly ventured upon an enterprize, which, however difficult in the beginning, promised them, with perseverance, an ample return for the dangers and risques which they should run.

' The Venetians accordingly encouraged a revival of the trade with India by means of the Red Sea, and by their contracts with the Egyptians so effectually secured a monopoly of it to themselves, that Venice soon became the emporium of Asiatic manufactures. Its citizens grew wealthy ; and this little republic, from being of no consequence, suddenly became a nation of power and consideration.

' Another channel, however, had for some time opened itself for the introduction of Indian manufactures into Europe. This was by means of the Persian gulph, from whence, by caravans passing over the deserts of Arabia, and sometimes along the borders of that country, the articles of Asiatic commerce, more generally in demand, had been brought by tedious journeys to the borders of the Ægeian sea, and thence transported by shipping to the mercantile dealers at Constantinople.

' Thus confined within boundaries which afforded advantage to a few, at the same time that it impoverished the other countries of Europe, the traffic of the East became a subject of discussion amongst men, who, from study and reflection, were enabled to reason upon its importance. Rome, enfeebled in all its parts, shewed but the remnants of its former greatness. Bigotry and superstition had reared to themselves a power more
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formidable and riveted, than human ascendancy had hitherto acquired. The church declared itself omnipotent in its decrees, and made even sovereigns shake with terror on their thrones. Italy, the seat of its more immediate influence, long groaned under the servitude it imposed. The wretched inhabitants of that fertile clime felt what they dared not utter. Genius lay dead amongst them. A happier gleam of freedom, indeed, beamed upon them at a distance; but they were yet in bondage, and their faculties could not be employed. The Spaniards, distracted within themselves, torn by perpetual efforts for their liberty, and abandoned to the wildest chimeras of romance, proudly confined their thoughts to the arrogant superiority which they claimed over the rest of mankind. And the Portuguese, though milder in their government, in general were actuated by a similar disposition. The French, rising from a state of vassalage in which they had hitherto been kept, aimed, though with inconsiderateness, at the establishment of freedom; industry exerted itself, as they emancipated from their barons, but their dependence was too rooted to be easily shaken off. The Germans, long involved in bloody contests with each other, and smarting from the struggles betwixt the hierarchy and the empire, were yet unsettled amongst themselves. Rude and uncivilized, agriculture and war were the only sciences which they cultivated: tranquillity reigned among them but at times: they yet, however, were formidable, and enjoyed more liberty than their neighbours. The northern countries, still less cultivated than the Germans, experienced all the evils of licentious freedom and barbarity. And the Turks, though numerous in the field, were yet unsettled in their government. England alone, of all the European powers, seemed to possess that spark of liberty, which, however discordant on its first breaking out, was finally to effectuate the downfall of oppression. Its nobles, though daring, were indigent and illiterate; the sovereigns, too limited in their authority, were driven by necessity to take part with the body of their subjects; and thus, by a coalition of the extremities of the state, that constitution became established, which fixed the pride and the glory of a Briton.

‘ In this situation was Europe, when the Portuguese, actuated by a spirit of enterprize, and headed by a monarch of ability, formed the design of extending their power to the East. Madeira was the first of their discoveries in 1418, and the Canary islands became subject to their authority in 1420. John the Second, a prince singularly learned for the days in which he lived, and, above all, intimately acquainted with astronomy and navigation, encouraged this propensity amongst his people. In his reign, the passage round the extremity of Africa was first accomplished, and that too, under difficulties, which, even at this time, would stagger the resolution of the boldest explorer. Emanuel adopted the plan which had been pursued
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by his predecessors, and in the year 1497, fitted out the first fleet for the East Indies, under the command of Vasco de Gama, which fortunately arrived there after a voyage of more than thirteen months. Gama, on his return to Lisbon, failed not to boast of the regions he had visited. His accounts flattered the ardour of his countrymen: the riches he had seen, stimulated their avarice, and the prospect they had of propagating their faith, added not a little to the inclination which they already had conceived for an establishment in the East.

The author afterwards relates the transactions of the French and English on the Coromandel coast, and particularly of the ample possessions of the latter in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixá; with the transactions of the English, likewise, on the Malabar coast. In the recital of those events, Mr. Sullivan corrects a mistake, which has been universally adopted by other writers in their account of the affairs of the province of Arcot. The inhabitants of this province having long been accustomed to the government of the family of Subdter-Ally-Cawn, were dissatisfied on hearing of the appointment of Anawer-Odean-Cawn; especially as a son of Subdter-Ally-Cawn, a minor, was then living. Petitions and remonstrances accordingly flew in from all quarters to the Soubahdar, who, to appease the ill-humour of the people, annulled, as has been said, the appointment of Anawer-Odean-Cawn; leaving him, however, the sole executive and deliberative authority, as regent of the province, and guardian of the young Siyed-Mahomed-Cawn (the infant son), whom he proclaimed governor of the Phousdary of Arcot. In contradiction to this account, Mr. Sullivan assures us, that Anawer-Odean-Cawn's appointment was never annulled; nor was Siyed-Mahomed-Cawn ever proclaimed the governor of Arcot. The fact is, Nizam-Ul-Mulc, on appointing Anawer-Odean-Cawn his deputy in the Carnatic, confided to him, at the same time, the person, family, and jegheirs of Siyed-Mahomed-Cawn.

In tracing the history of India during the present century, it appears that two powerful nations have arisen from the ruins of the Mogul empire, and in opposite quarters of Hindostan. These are the Mahrattahs and Seiks, the former of which are superior in extent of dominion, in military force, and in political importance. Of both those nations, the author of the present Analysis gives a full and perspicuous account.

We lay before our readers the following passage from this part of the work, on account of a remark made by the author, relative to what is mentioned in the conclusion.

‘ Shavajei,

‘Shavajei, no longer under the apprehension of controul, and stimulated by ambition and opportunity, seized the reins of government on Dadajei’s death. In the full confidence of power, he formed an administration. To Siam Raje he confided the seals of the Peishwâee. Ragho Bulalutri he nominated his secretary; and to Raghonath Balal he entrusted the controul and payment of his forces. His age, at this time, was barely seventeen. A cast-off, likewise, and an alien from his father. But these were no impediments: they were rather spurs to the daring propensities of his mind. The vigorous ardour of youth, tempered, indeed, by an uncommon share of penetration and sagacity, led him to decision and promptitude in his actions; whilst the injuries he felt at his father’s unjust predilection for Ikajei, his youngest born, satisfied him of the rectitude of a conduct, which had nothing for its object but the recovery of his right.

‘Shahjei, whose residence was in the Carnatic, hearing of the usurpation of his son, was, contrary to expectation, satisfied with it. He publicly exonerated him from all censure: and, as a testimony of his entire approbation, invested him with the government of Poonah and its dependencies. In this situation of affairs, Aurungzebe applied to Shavajei, as a dependent of the empire for his portion of the pecuniary aid and military assistance. But his mandates were derided, and his messengers insulted. The application, however, was useful to the aspiring Mahrattah. It gave him the idea of an assessment on all the countries within the reach of his power. He accordingly took the field, and made a general levy of a fourth part of the revenues of each district, and this arbitrary contribution he denominated chout.

‘With troops, with treasure, and with an eager thirst of dominion, Shavajei was not long in extending his conquests. He marched into the fertile province of Cokun, and presently subduing it, appointed Raghonath Balal its governor. He next turned his steps northward, and thence sweeping round to the south, he so alarmed the sovereigns of the Decan, that the sultan of Bidjapoor (with the full acquiescence of Shahjei, who reprobated this conduct of his son) sent a considerable army to oppose his progress, under the command of Abdoolat Cawn.

‘Shavajei, who was averse to contention with so formidable an opponent, agreed to a conference with the Bidjapoor general. They met at an appointed spot, within the sight of both armies. But Abdoolat Cawn was less generous than Shavajei: he basely attempted to assassinate the Mahrattah, while spiritedly vindicating his actions, with respect to the court of Bidjapoor. The result was, that Abdoolat Cawn was instantly cut down by Shavajei’s own hand.’

This, we are assured, is the fact, and not as is related in a late work, entitled ‘Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire,’ where the author, from misinformation, had been led

to say, 'that Sevaji seduced the commander Abdul to a conference, and stabbed him.' Treachery, Mr. Sullivan affirms, was aimed at, but never intended by Shavajei. He was meant the sacrifice.

From this period, the complicated influence of the Mahrattah power on the affairs of the East, renders their history peculiarly worthy of the attention of Europeans; but it is stained with those barbarous assassinations which usually accompany political competition among a fierce and uncivilized people.

The Seiks, from small beginnings, like the Mahrattahs, have risen to so great a degree of consequence, that they now possess an extent of dominion computed at eight hundred miles in length, and four hundred in breadth, the capital of which is Lahore. Their army, entirely composed of cavalry, is supposed to exceed a hundred thousand fighting men. As the Mahrattahs fall (and that they are on the decline seems, as our author observes, to be indisputable), the Seiks must necessarily rise; and indeed their growing influence has, for some years past, much alarmed the powers of Hindostan.

Besides the Mahrattahs and Seiks, our author gives an account of the Rohillas, a people whose power, though greatly declined, is by no means extinguished; and may possibly, he thinks, be revived under a future leader, more active and enterprising than either of the reigning chiefs of that tribe.

Mr. Sullivan, having treated of the most conspicuous nations and princes of Hindostan, proceeds to a review of the inferior powers, on the eastern side of the Peninsula; and he afterwards relates, with his usual perspicuity, the rise and progress of the connection between the English and the nabob Mohammed-Ally-Cawn, whose political conduct, and faithful attachment to this country, are placed in a light extremely favourable to that prince.

After the historical analysis, we are favoured by Mr. Sullivan with some important reflections, arising from the subjects before treated. He observes, in the first place, that large tracts of country, without the means of regular defence, are the strongest attractions to an Asiatic enemy. For, accustomed to predatory excursions, they suddenly rush upon a country with fire and desolation; sweeping before them, as they march, all that they do not destroy. On this account our author remarks, that all the territorial possessions of Europeans in the East Indians should be compact, connected, and so equally well defended, that an enemy should have no advantage in attacking one place in preference to another. But what is of yet greater importance towards their permanent security,

security, is the good faith with which they should conduct themselves in all their transactions with the country governments. For, though the Indians be prone to chicanery and deceit, they are said to be great admirers of the contrary character in others.

Our author observes, that nothing has been so loudly exclaimed against as the introduction of English laws into the Bengal provinces. This, however, he believes, has proceeded more from a disappointment of interested views, than from a conviction of any pernicious consequences that they are likely to produce.

‘No man of reason, says he, possessing a personal knowledge of the manners and customs of Hindostan, can honestly declare, he believes the English laws improper to be introduced into that country. Prejudice, indeed, may operate powerfully on some who have been educated in all the principles of Asiatic despotism, who have ruled over provinces with an arbitrary sway, and whose words have been law; but a dispassionate enquirer, who judges with moderation, and who sees the necessity of coercion in a country where common justice hath been trampled under foot, not only by some of the English themselves, but universally by their servants and dependents, will unhesitatingly confess, that the rod of legal authority cannot but be serviceable in withholding the hand of oppression, and ensuring to the honest labourer the scanty reward of his industry and trouble. This, it is said, has never been denied him. But what is more liable to misrepresentation than an unsettled state, where all dominion, after the confusion of successive revolutions, is transferred to a few strangers, and where the conquerors, living under their own laws of freedom, amidst a nation of helpless and unprotected beings, exhibit a situation almost without parallel in history?’

This intelligent author observes, that the present mode of letting the lands in India is attended with many inconveniences, independently of the disadvantages which result from their unequal distribution. Some zemindars, he remarks, unwilling to relinquish their habitations, are often induced to exceed the real value of farms, if their lease is but for a short term of years. The zemindar, at the same time, even though possessed of the ability, cannot, with safety to his own interests, encourage the inferior farmers by advancing them money; and without this advance, the lands cannot receive that cultivation which, with a longer lease, or the absolute possession, the occupiers would be enabled to bestow.

We cannot conclude our review of this Analysis without observing, that Mr. Sullivan appears to write with great impartiality; that he discovers an extensive knowledge of the politics

litics of India; and that he has suggested to the company very important and rational hints both for the defence and improvement of their territories.

This work was first printed in 1779.

A Tour through Parts of England, Scotland, and Wales, in 1778. In a Series of Letters. By Richard Joseph Sullivan, Esq. The Second Edition, corrected and enlarged. In Two Volumes. 8vo. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Becket.

THE first edition of this Tour, which appears to have derived its origin from a generous ardour for literary amusement, was published a few years ago. The nature of the work induces us to imagine, that it had been occasionally composed during the hours of relaxation from travelling, and consequently without that exertion of mind, of which this ingenious author is evidently capable. The present edition, however, though containing nearly the same account of the Tour as formerly, is not a little increased by the embellishments of sentiment and observation; and considering that a great part of what it describes was before familiar to us, from the account of Mr. Pennant, we must acknowledge that we have received far greater pleasure in the perusal, than might have been expected under such circumstances. Before we proceeded farther than the first Letter, we were convinced, from Mr. Sullivan's remarks, that he is perfectly well acquainted with the art of travelling to advantage. Nor is it a circumstance unworthy of attention, that while he discovers much knowledge of the world, it has not effaced that virtuous sensibility, which is too liable to abatement from an extensive commerce with mankind.

In giving an account of Eton College, our author makes a digression on the comparative advantages of a private and a public education. This subject having been much agitated, affords little room for any new observation; but, in the following quotation, Mr. Sullivan has contrasted the different opinions in a just point of view.

‘The vast number of great men which not only Eton, but the other public seminaries of learning in this country, have produced, hath often led me to the long-disputed point, of which should have the preference, a public or a private education. To many men the advantages of a public school are demonstratively evident; but much, as in most cases, may be advanced on both sides. Public schools, as society now is regulated, are certainly possessed of many commendatory essentials in the point of education. The masters sought after for them are generally men of the first abilities: the diet of the pupils

pupils is carefully attended to, and their learning is less neglected, than the number of boys, and the variety of their talents, would at first give one reason to apprehend. A private tutor, undoubtedly, has it in his power to give more attention to his scholar's education than the master of a large academy. He can watch over the progress of the understanding, and, by constant care, can take advantage of every effort of the mind, and turn it by culture to its proper end. The morals too he has rigidly under his inspection. The seeds of goodness, therefore, planted in such manner in the breast, must bring forth the fairest blossoms of benignity. Gentleness and truth will irresistibly fix in his pupil's mind the loveliness of social virtue. The man cannot but spring up in theoretic perfection; but the passions will have hitherto been silent, because they will not have had sufficient objects to stimulate them to action.

Could human nature be brought to that degree of relative goodness, which it is natural to suppose it never did, nor ever will possess, but in the abstruse and fine-spun opinions of a few philosophers, a private education would indisputably be best; but as a man is the same that he probably was four thousand years ago, and as the active passions may properly be called the elements of life, something more general is required than what can possibly be imbibed from the instruction of any one person, at once both the master and companion. Moreover, a too-close application, without the necessary recreations, is too apt to impress a boy with a disgust to study when he is freed from the dominion of a tutor, or, what is worse, to enamour him with books, and thereby to ruin his health, and otherwise to deprive him of those comforts which nature intended he should enjoy.

On the other hand, the man who has been early sent to school, on his first going there, enters into a world in miniature, similar to the one in which he is afterwards doomed to move. The whole circle of the passions is there to combat and be combated with. Love, hatred, jealousy, revenge, ambition, courage, cowardice, in short, all the most opposite sentiments of the human heart, are there to be found in their different degrees. The dispositions of his fellow-creatures thus come experimentally to be made known to him. He soon perceives the delights of goodness, as well as the turpitude of baseness. Pride makes him emulate his superiors. He feels an exultation in rising to be foremost of his class. His incitements to morality become equally strong. Applause attends him in every step of his career. Self feels its native dignity, and is pleased in the exertion; he rises to be a man with a knowledge of books, and, what is of much more consequence, with a knowledge of his species.

In another light, likewise, the advantages of public are apparently infinitely superior to those of private education. The mingling together draws forth the exertion of children's bodily as well as mental faculties; their nerves in this manner

become strong :—by feats of strength they gradually acquire degrees of courage: their little spirits become imperceptibly inured to resent an injury, and to protect the oppressed. Exercise gives an invigorating principle to their system; and they break into the world with health, with spirit, and with understanding, fit to encounter the innumerable vicissitudes which are incident to their existence.'

From London, where the traveller commences his journey, he proceeded to Bath, and the more distant parts of Somersetshire and Wiltshire. He next directs his course to Bristol, and afterwards to Chepstow, and other places in Wales. Returning thence to Bristol, he visits Gloucestershire, Worcester-shire, and Derbyshire; and shaping his route through York-shire, continues his journey into Scotland; where he has proceeded so far north as Glamis, Perth, Dunkeld, Taymouth, and Inverary, all which are situated in nearly the same latitude, about the middle of that part of Great Britain. From Inverary, he returns by Glasgow and Carron to Edinburgh, and thence to Carlisle; from which city he directs his course through different parts of England to London. Without laying before our readers the author's account, however faithful and well described, of places visited by other travellers, we shall present them with the narrative of his descent into a cavern in Derbyshire; a journey which few ever before attempted, and probably few will perform hereafter.

'Imagination can scarcely form a descent more perilous. The only steps or things to hold by, are bits of oak stuck into the sides, inhabitants of the place since it was first discovered, and which, from want of use, it was natural to suppose might have either rotted or loosened themselves in the earth: moreover, a false step hurled one inevitably to destruction: fortunately all was firm, and we arrived at the bottom unhurt. Here ranging ourselves in order, with a large bundle of candles and torches, independent of the candles which each of us carried, we proceeded with tolerable facility through two or three lofty and most beautifully enamelled caverns of spar. This we conceived an earnest of future delight, and the tablets were accordingly set at work; but, alas, how great was our mistake. Here our difficulties were to commence.

'Following the guide, who besides another who was with us, was the only one of the party who had ever penetrated before, we forced our way with infinite struggles, through a narrow space, between two rocks, and thence getting on our hands and knees, were, for the full distance of a mile, obliged to crawl without ever daring to lift up our heads, the passage being both low and craggy, and as it was likewise filled with mud, dirt, and a multitude of bits of rocks, our progress was painful indeed: we still, however, hoped for something better.
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On we accordingly proceeded, till a dreadful noise, rumbling along the horrible crevices of the cave, gave us to understand we were near a river: to this then we, as fast as we were able, hurried. But description is inadequate to any thing like a representation of the scene. A vast ocean seemed roaring in upon us; in some places bursting with inconceivable impetuosity, and at others falling through dreadful chasms, burst into shaggy forms to give it vent: through this our journey was to continue. A cry of light, however, alarmed us: the confinement of the air, and the narrowness of our track, had extinguished all our torches; the candles too, all but one small end, were totally expended. We knew not what to do. In vain the miners halloo'd for the supply which was to have come behind; no answer was to be heard. Our fate seemed inevitable; but the principals of the party, fortunately, expressed no fear. In this extremity, a gallant fellow, who yet was ignorant of the place, but from experience knew the danger we were in, suddenly disappeared, and after groping for a considerable time in the dark and dismal horrors of the place, at length returned to us with a supply of candles, having discovered his companions, unto whom they were given in charge, almost petrified with fear, and unable to follow us from apprehension. Reprieved in this manner from a death which seemed to wait us, in its most horrid form, we onward proceeded with a fresh recruit of spirits; and plunging into the river above our waists, scarce tenable from the impetuosity of the torrent, cautiously picked our steps, and, at length, after a four hours most unspeakable fatigue, arrived at about three hundred yards beyond the spot, where the subterranean passage we had the day before explored, was expected to find an entrance into this dreadful place.

But here we were obliged to stop; a fall into a yawning gulph, in which I was providentially saved by the corner of a rock catching me by the knee, had hitherto given me an inconceivable degree of pain; but I had not spoke; it now became scarce bearable; out, however, I was to crawl, and that too upon this tortured limb. The retreat accordingly began; but no anguish could surpass the excess of torment I was in. Often did I wish to remain where I was; no succour or assistance could be given me: every man was painfully busied in the charge of his own safety. At length, having almost worn out the other knee, and torn both my sides and back by forcing myself in those positions, I was compelled to call out for help, as we happily came to the first opening where I could be raised. Languor and faintness from what I had suffered, had totally deprived me of my strength: I was seated on a rock, where I breathed a little freer, and so refreshed in a few minutes, having collected myself as much as possible, that I tottered through the rest of the cavern, helped where assistance could be given me, and in that manner got to the blessed sunshine of the day.

'All the rest of the explorers were tolerably well, excepting two of our guides, one of whom had received a violent contusion on his head from a rock; and another several bruises from a fall, in climbing up the last aperture. Altogether, the depth we had descended was about one hundred and forty fathom, or nine hundred and eighty feet, and the length about three miles, according to the miner's calculation. Neither at this distance were we at the end; a passage still continued, but so filled with water, and so full of peril, that the miners themselves were averse to farther trial.'

In treating of remote parts of the country, it is not surprising if some topographical inaccuracies should escape the attention of a traveller. We believe, however, that our author's narrative is chargeable with very few blemishes of this kind. The most observable that occurs to us is his mentioning Glenorchy as a shire. If all the geographical accounts which we have seen of Scotland, be not erroneous, Glenorchy is only a district of Argyleshire.—Mr. Sullivan is a pleasing and sentimental traveller, fond of entertaining both himself and his readers with poetical description; and is so much the philosopher, as well as facetious writer, that we find him moralizing even on the terrace at Windsor; where, we believe, the glories of the earth afford subject of speculation more frequently than the nature of man.

The New Annual Register, or General Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year 1784. To which is prefixed, A short Review of the State of Knowledge, Literature, and Taste, in this Country, from the Accession of Edward the First, to the Accession of Henry the Fourth. 8vo. 6s. 6d. half-bound. Robinson.

WE are pleased at seeing this collection improve in spirit, and in taste, while its appearance is not so late as to lose the bloom of youth, and the grace of novelty. We would recommend to the compiler a careful attention to the time of publication, as we should be glad to receive the volume earlier, if it were consistent with the perfection which it may now boast.

The Short View of the State of Knowledge is brought down to the accession of Henry the Fourth, and is executed with accuracy. The British and Foreign History is related with greater precision than in the former volumes. This period of British history is highly important, not on account of contending factions, but of the magnitude of the dif-

objects, and importance of the debates. We began to see different parts of the legislature contending with each other; and, in the dispute, each party seemed to have lost sight of those limits by which the separate functions and duties were constitutionally defined. It was the beginning of anarchy; but fortunately the tumult did not run in different directions: if the people were not unanimous, there was so great a majority on one side, that the contest ceased from a deficiency in the number of contenders. It is the fate of popular delusion to spread by ways the least suspected, and a celerity almost unexampled.—This part of the work is distinguished by its great accuracy and the justness of the reflections; the enlightened defender of the constitution is not silenced by the clamour of faction; nor is the judicious enquirer lost in the zealous partizan. We shall transcribe the concluding remarks: they deserve attention and applause.

‘ The conduct of Mr. Pitt, in the course of this long and important contest, was a subject of much animadversion. Those, who form their opinion from success; and those, who regard every proceeding with admiration that is marked with inflexibility and perseverance, have of course extolled it as a perfect and unblemished model of heroic virtue. Others, on the contrary, whose suspicions of obstinacy are as rooted and violent as the prejudices of the former are unreasonable, have allowed no merit to the constancy of the minister in the pursuit of an object, which they, in the first instance, decided to be unjustifiable and criminal. It may, however, be doubted, whether the uniformity of Mr. Pitt were so great, as either the admirers or the enemies of that quality have supposed it to be. It may reasonably be questioned, whether he foresaw the end from the beginning; and whether he did not act upon the principle of those men, who, believing they have engaged in a just and an honourable cause, pretend not to perceive, and puzzle themselves not with the investigation of the consequences of their exertions. This seems to have been the meaning of the reasonings so often repeated by Mr. Pitt. He accepted of office, and continued in it, for the sake of averting the pernicious effects of Mr. Fox’s India bill, and he was satisfied that no mischief could result from his perseverance, so greatly to be dreaded and so much to be deplored as those which had so lately impended over his country. Nor is it probable, either, that when the minister authorised Mr. Bankes to make the assurances we have related upon the subject of a dissolution, he foresaw that he should be the adviser of that measure; or that, when he pointed out to the house

of commons two constitutional modes of removing him from the councils of his sovereign, by impeachment or by address, he had formed the design of continuing in office, notwithstanding the addresses which were afterwards presented.'

The different occurrences are selected with great care, and they are pointed to the important events of the period in which they occurred. The extracts are collected with judgment, from the publications of the year. The Biographical Sketch of Johnson, by Tyers, is properly preserved in this collection; and the life of the brave, the enterprising, but unfortunate colonel Humberston, excites both our admiration and our pity. The last is an original communication, very well written.

In the Poetry we meet with nothing original; but the different parts are well chosen. The accounts of Domestic and Foreign Literature are somewhat extended, but the decisions are generally just: indeed this department of the work is executed with great propriety, and assumes an increasing importance. On the whole, we are much pleased with this volume; since, like Virgil's 'Rumour,' it acquires force in its progress.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XXI. 4to. 1s.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XXII. 4to. 1s. 6d.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XXIII. 4to. 9s.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XXIV. 4to. 1s. 6d.

Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. XXV. 4to. 1s. 6d.

All published by Nichols.

OF the former Numbers of this work we have given an account at different times.—N^o XXI, contains the History and Antiquities of Eccleshal Manor and Castle; and Lichfield House in London. By Mr. Pegge.—Eccleshal, which lies in the county of Stafford, is supposed to derive its name from the *ecclesia*, or *church*, which, therefore, it is probable, was built at an early period. That there was a church here in the eleventh century, appears from Domesday Book; and Mr. Pegge is of opinion that it had been erected long before. The manor is extensive, and, according to the authority of that register, belonged to the bishop of the diocese.

Concerning the episcopal house of Lichfield, Mr. Pegge observes that it stood at first in the city: for, that Hugh, bishop of Coventry, he supposes Hugh de Novant, purchased a house for himself and successors, which, by the description of it, ap-

appears to have been situated there. But bishop Meyland or Mulent, about the year 1260, removed his habitation from the city, by making a new purchase in the Strand, on the spot where Somerset-house was afterwards erected.

Nº XXII. contains Observations on Croyland Abbey and Bridge. By Mr. Essex — The triangular bridge of Croyland, as the author observes, is a structure worthy of notice, on account of the singularity of its form. It consists of three squares, and an equilateral triangle about which they are placed. The bridge has three fronts; three ways over it, and the same number beneath. The abutments are separated by three streams, and are supposed to stand in three different counties. It is in reality but one arch, composed of three half arches, formed of three ribs, which are segments of a circle inscribed within the three abutments, and, springing from low-water-mark, form three pointed arches, which unite in the triangle of the crown of the arch.

Croyland abbey was first founded about the year 716, by king Ethelbald, who gave three hundred pounds in silver, and one hundred pounds, for ten years, towards building the church and offices belonging to it. About a hundred and fifty-four years after it was built, it was destroyed by the Danes, who, after plundering the place of every thing valuable, burnt the church and offices. In the year 948, Turketyl, the sixth abbot, began to rebuild them, and they were completed by Egelric the elder, his kinsman and successor. Before the year 984, all those buildings, except the church and the abbot's apartment, were built of wood, covered with lead. The upper part of the tower of the church was likewise of wood, and probably covered with lead. In this tower began the fire which happened in Ingulphus's time. The church was again destroyed by fire, between the years 1142 and 1170, but re-built by the abbot of that time, and his two immediate successors. Between the years 1253 and 1281, the west end of the church, with its turrets, and great part of the nave, were thrown down by a strong wind. Our author afterwards relates some other changes which this place underwent, until the dissolution of the abbey by Henry VIII. He observes that the buildings and offices belonging to this abbey must have been very extensive, as appears from the number of monks and lay-brothers, besides servants, resident there, and upwards of a hundred monks of other monasteries, who all, when they came, had a stall in the choir, a seat in the refectory, and a bed in the dormitory. They likewise often entertained many strangers, who found among them a comfortable

retreat in times of danger. The monks of Croyland abbey are said to have been no less famous for their learning than hospitality. The nobility sent thither their children for instruction; and to the monks of this place the university of Cambridge was indebted for the revival of learning, if not the first institution of public lectures among them. But all the buildings belonging to this once famous monastery and ancient seminary of learning, except a small part of the church, are now so completely destroyed, that not a stone is left by which there is any possibility of tracing them.

N^o XXIII. contains the History and Antiquities of Hawsted, in the County of Suffolk. By the Rev. Sir John Cullum, Bart.—Hawsted lies between three and four miles south-west of Bury St. Edmunds, and about seventy north-east of London. The exact age of the church appears not from any records; but from the modern style of the building, and particularly a piece of sculpture in the steeple, our author concludes it to have been erected in the beginning of the sixteenth century. If we may judge from the minuteness with which he has treated of this place, and from the frequent occurrence of the name of Cullum in the narrative, we should be inclined to think that the reverend baronet has been prompted to the investigation of this subject by some local attachment. From repeated experience, we have found that a predilection of this kind is too apt to lead an antiquarian into frivolous details; but though much of the present article will probably be deemed superfluous by uninterested readers, we doubt not that the whole may afford pleasure to the inhabitants and neighbourhood of Hawsted.

N^o XXIV. contains an Account of the Roman roads, Ikenild-Street, and Bath-Way, with a Dissertation on the Coritani. By Mr. Pegge.—In tracing the route of Ikenild-street through the country of the Coritani, or the county of Derby, Mr. Pegge remarks, that it has no sooner crossed the easternmost branch of the Dove, and entered Derbyshire, than it appears for a considerable way together on Eggington Heath, where it points to Derby, or rather Little-Chester, to which place it came by Little-Over, across Nun-Green, and so down Darley-Slade to the river Derwent, where a bridge had stood from very remote time; and the remains of a bridge are yet to be seen at this place, when the water of the river is low. Some antiquaries are of opinion that the Romans built no bridges, and only made use of fords; but on this subject, Mr. Pegge makes a just observation. ‘As we know, says he, that the Romans did build bridges in other parts, why not in England;
land;

land; especially when the sudden and high floods of the river seemed greatly to require it, and that we have one station in Richard of Cirencester, which is expressly called *Ad Pontem*?

After crossing the river, the road passed eastward by the wall of the station of Little Chester; of which wall or *wallum*, a considerable fragment, of about five feet thick, was seen by Mr. Pegge in 1759.

Mr. Pegge supposes, that from Little-Chester the road kept on the east-side of the Derwent, never crossing that river any more. After going a short space due east from Little Chester, it enters the open fields, and turns to the northward, the course of it being from its first entrance upon Morley-Moor, N. N. E. No traces of it are now to be seen until you approach Morley-Moor, because, the ground being arable, the agger has been levelled by the plough. 'But as soon as you have left Bredsal priory on your left hand, says the author, and begin to rise up to the alms-houses on Morley-Moor, a large raised fragment appears on your right hand.' It is afterwards just visible, as being but little raised, quite across this moor, running N. N. E. to the fence, against which it abuts about a hundred yards east of Brackley gate. At the fence it is very conspicuous, as likewise in the enclosure on the other side. Its progress thence is in a direct line, though there be no vestiges remaining in this part, close by the lodge or house in Horsley-Park, where it plainly appears again, having the lodge on the east. Mr. Horsley observes, that this road goes northward from Little-Chester to Horston-Castle; but, according to Mr. Pegge's account, this is a mistake. He says it does not approach that castle, but leaves it on the left hand. After passing the lodge or house above mentioned, it begins to appear again in the lane or yard, and farther on, in the enclosure, is very high and broad, and covered with gorze. In those parts, it is altogether composed of gravel, of which it consists for many miles. From the last mentioned inclosure it runs up two or three fields until it comes to the road that goes east to Nottingham, and west to Wirksworth, which it crosses about a hundred yards west of Horsley Woodhouse, being very visible in the fields on the south and north sides of that road. Mr. Pegge traces it thence to a farm belonging to sir Henry Hunsloke; beyond which, the country having been long in tillage, no farther vestiges of it remain.

Mr. Pegge, afterwards, with the same distinctness, describes the perambulation of the lesser Roman road, called the Bath-Way, in the county of Derby; which is followed by a dissertation on the Coritani. After treating of the etymology and ortho-

orthography of this name, the author proceeds to ascertain the situation of the Coritani. He observes, that northward, they bordered on the Brigantes, who lived in the county now called Yorkshire; that on the east, they were bounded by the German ocean; on the south, by the Cennomanni, from whom they were separated by the river Aufona; and on the west, by the Carnabii, who lived in Staffordshire and Cheshire. We then meet with a few remarks on the etymology of the Caledonia wood; on the limits in respect of the Brigantes and Carnabii; and on the name and extraction of the Iceni, of whom the Coritani were a part. Mr. Pegge endeavours to evince, that the Iceni were not seated in Worcestershire and Staffordshire, as has been imagined by Dr. Plott.

N^o XXV. contains a Historical Account of the Textus Roffensis; and of Mr. Elstob and his Sister; with Memoirs of Mr. Johnson of Cranbrooke.—The Textus Roffensis is the name given to a history of the church of Rochester, and mentioned in Dugdale's Monasticon, under the title of *Chronicon Claustrii Roffensis*. This venerable manuscript consists of two parts; the first containing the laws and constitutions of the Anglo-Saxon kings, in Latin and Saxon, transcribed from ancient copies; and the second giving a register or chartulary of the church of Rochester, from the autographs, with some other matters relating to that cathedral, written in the times of Ernulf, bishop of Rochester, in the twelfth century, and some of his successors; but these last in a later hand. Mr. Elstob, of whom some memoirs are delivered in this Number, was a worthy and learned clergyman of London, in the beginning of the present century, remarkable for his knowledge of the Saxon language, as was his sister who was likewise well acquainted with the Latin, and several other languages. Concerning Mr. Johnson, it is sufficient to observe, that he lived in the same period, was also of the clerical profession, and respectable for his virtues and learning,

Dissertations on the internal Evidences and Excellence of Christianity: and on the Character of Christ, compared with that of some other celebrated Founders of Religion and Philosophy. By Joshua Toulmin, A. M. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson.

THE respectable author of the work before us has entitled those essays *Dissertations*, which were probably composed and preached as sermons. In this respect, he has acted with policy and judgment; for many, alarmed by the title, would have looked no farther. But, while we approve Mr. Toulmin's

min's conduct, it has subjected us to some difficulties in our review. The laws, by which these several kinds of writings are to be judged, are so different, that we might approve, as an useful sermon, what would be, in reality, a superficial essay. The audience, on such occasions, cannot usually follow a long connected series of arguments and proofs, nor can it profit by deep investigation, or elaborate researches.

As sermons, however, these essays deserve attention. The language is easy and perspicuous, the arguments clear and decisive. After examining the internal evidence, and demonstrating the innate excellence of Christianity, the author compares our Saviour to the first characters which have appeared, either as legislators or moral teachers; with Socrates, Confucius, and Mahomet. In this comparison, he finds each deficient in the uniform majesty, the steady meekness, and the undeviating, unqualified morality, which adorned the behaviour and the doctrine of Christ. This part of the work is rather historical than didactic; and, in it, we are chiefly tempted to arraign the superficial manner in which the subject is treated. The disciples of any of those sages might accuse Mr. Toulmin of injustice, in not examining their tenets with more profound erudition. His sources are generally common, and sometimes suspicious; but we have no reason to suppose that, in a more arduous trial, their purity would be more conspicuous.

The importance of this kind of evidence is explained in the following judicious manner.

‘Of all the evidences which evince the truth of Christianity, the internal may be allowed to possess, if not an absolute superiority, yet, in some respects, the advantage over the rest; as being attended with fewer difficulties—lying more level to common apprehension—and not requiring learned discussion and much historical information. Every understanding is capable of perceiving, every heart is capable of feeling the excellence of our religion, as it arises from the character of its founder, the purity of its morals, and the dignity of its rewards. It is an advantage attending this kind of evidence, that it lies within the books of the New Testament, and grows stronger upon a candid and attentive perusal of them. It also springs not only from the general contents of the gospel history, but is furnished by the particular facts it relates, and the particular incidents it records. We may often observe circumstances in the relation of these, which give an air of veracity to the whole history, and forbid the supposition of art or invention. To them may be applied the words of the apostle Peter, relative to a particular event in the ministry of Christ;

“We

“ We have not followed cunningly devised fables :” we have not presented you with an artful tale, nor deceived you with an ingenious romance ; but have plainly spoken real facts. I would shew the truth of this assertion, by an appeal to some particular facts related by the evangelists and the apostles—and to the manner in which they have described the character—the doctrines—and the miracles of Christ. In reviewing these points we shall discern the marks of truth stamped on them, and shall be naturally led to conclude the divine origin of the religion to which they refer.”

For these reasons our author examines the character, the doctrines, and the miracles of Christ, as detailed in the New Testament, by witnesses whom Mr. Toulmin endeavours to vindicate, with great success, from the suspicion of error and misrepresentation. This is the subject of the second Dissertation. From this part of the work we shall select a specimen.

“ Another extraordinary fact related by the evangelists is the ascension of Christ. Of this it may be said, that the narrative of it has the appearance of being an account of the real fact, not of a feigned tale. We have a full, yet a concise account of it given by Luke xxiv. 50, 51. And “ He, i. e. Christ, led them, i. e. the apostles, out as far as Bethany, and he lifted up his hands and blessed them. And it came to pass while he blessed them, he was parted from them, and carried up into heaven.” From almost every circumstance attending this relation, arises some evidence of its truth.

“ The circumstances attending it are such, as do not appear to have been copied from any past transaction. They are original. Jesus Christ is not described as taken up to heaven in a whirlwind, in a chariot of fire and with horses of fire, as was Elias. Nor is it merely said, that having conversed with them forty days, he was seen no more ; but, as it was written of Enoch, “ God took him.” Nor is he represented as first undergoing a change, like that of the transfiguration on the mount. No ideas borrowed from these similar facts, are blended with the narrative. But invented tales are greatly furnished by memory, and formed from analogies and allusions. Hence the circumstances are peculiar to this event : suitable to the calm and rational manner in which the evidences of Christ’s ascension were offered ; agreeable to the mild dignity which he, on all occasions, displayed, and correspondent to the benevolence of his temper.

“ He led them out as far as Bethany, to the Mount of Olives ;” that their view of the scene might be clear, free, and uninterrupted. He lifted up his hands “ and blessed them ;”

them:" by this gentle and easy deportment leaving them in full possession of their powers and senses, able judges of his ascent: "And while he blessed them, he was parted from them:" gradually ascending up, till a cloud received him out of their sight. Nothing obstructs their prospect; till the fact had been so long and distinctly seen, as to leave a full conviction. Nothing violent and pompous disturbs their imaginations. How proper is every circumstance, to ascertain to the witnesses, the reality of the ascension! How free is the narration of it from every mark of invention and design. Here is no pomp of words! Here is no artificial colouring! Simplicity is united with majesty. The familiar and the great are blended. The most natural actions accompany an extraordinary transaction.

'Nay, so far is this history from indicating any intention to frame a story which might raise the reputation of their master, that it appears from the narrative, that the fact was far from their prior thoughts and expectations. They had no apprehension of Christ's ascension before it took place: they rather imagined, that he was about to set up his kingdom, than that he was going to be parted from them. The event left them disappointed and astonished. It is scarcely to be conceived, that they would represent themselves as thus affected with an event of which they were publishing an invented account, only with a design to impose on the credulity of others. But the narrative is natural, when considered as describing a real fact, and real impressions.'

In the third essay, our author examines the Sermon in the Mount; and, in the fourth, the remarkable sayings of Christ. The object of these Dissertations, or more properly their application, is certainly, as Mr. Toulmin observes, in a great measure new.—The two next Dissertations are on the Excellence of the Gospel, in the Hopes which it excites, and in the Doctrine of Pardon. Then follow the comparative essays which we have already mentioned: they are rather contrasts than parallels.

The Appendix, we think, might have been spared. Mr. Toulmin steps out of his way to defend the Unitarians and Socinians from the strictures of Dr. Horsley and Mr. White. As our author was not named, he had received no challenge to appear in the field; and it rather partakes of the romantic generosity of a knight-errant, to be ready to attack every opponent. The remarks before us, however, are sensible and acute.

On the whole, this little volume is not only designed to promote the interests of religion, but will probably succeed

ceed in this purpose. The clear, easy form, the prepossessing manner, with a new and judicious source of persuasive argument, are well calculated, if not to convince, at least to awaken the infidel, and to incline his mind to this mode of enquiry. In its progress he may meet with more profound reasoners, though probably not with a more earnest and zealous guide.

The Idolatry of Greece and Rome distinguished from that of other Heathen Nations: in a Letter to the Rev. Hugh Farmer. By John Fell. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

THIS pamphlet, meant chiefly as an answer to Mr. Farmer's publication on *the general Prevalence of the Worship of Human Spirits in the Ancient Heathen Nations**, is divided into three parts. In the first, the author insists, 'that the greatest part of those Deities to whom the Heathens sacrificed, were by them considered as existing prior to the creation of man.'

The principal intention of the Second Part is to shew that Mr. Farmer's evidences are inapplicable to the testimonies cited by Mr. Fell, in his *Demoniacs*; and that these still remain unimpeachable by any subsequent facts; that no positive evidence has yet been offered to prove, that several northern and eastern nations, in question betwixt the controvertists, worshipped *human spirits*, during the time of those historians whose authority Mr. Fell had quoted, in order to shew that they did not worship such spirits; and that, as the *Getes* particularly, according to Herodotus, did not in his days worship human spirits, it cannot therefore be affirmed, on his authority, that they had no other deities than human spirits. Mr. Fell assures his antagonist, that he has alleged no one fact which is not supported by the testimony of ancient historians of acknowledged credit; and challenges him to disprove their authority, in the case disputed. Although our author does not seem to want a considerable appearance of reason on his side, he is not happy in the order and arrangement of his ideas; to which circumstance it may be owing that his arguments are not so luminous and decisive as to leave the mind completely satisfied.

The last part consists of strictures on Mr. Farmer's charges against our author, of having misrepresented the *Dissertation on the Objects of Pagan Worship*; charges which appeared,

* *Critical Review*, vol. lv. p. 371, for May 1783.

it seems, so early as the year 1779, and which have been followed, Mr. Fell observes, by fresh explanations and new ideas. The latter of these (for reasons not explicitly assigned) he expresses no inclination to investigate, and confines himself to the consideration of the charges advanced six years ago. These being dispatched, with some argument, and much acrimony, the apparent effect of wounds still bleeding from the hand of his antagonist, he concludes his performance with a parallel betwixt the ideas of Mr. Farmer, and those of Mr. Hume and lord Bolingbroke, on the subject of miracles. He here considers that writer as approaching much too near some exceptionable doctrines, which these celebrated authors have advanced.—As it must be acknowledged that, in the passages produced for comparison, the disagreement of ideas is not very striking, it may be hoped Mr. Farmer will favour the world with those exceptions he wishes to maintain in favour of the miracles of holy writ.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Memoires & Observations de Chymie, par M. Fourcroy. 8vo. Paris.

WE chiefly mention this volume of detached Observations, to recommend it to the attention of the translators of the *Leçons Elementaires* of the same author, to which it is intended as a Supplement. The greater part of them, he observes, are the result of his labours ever since the year 1776. They were chiefly read at the meetings of the Royal Academy of Sciences; but the Memoir, on the nature of the principal re-agents, and the use made of them in the analysis of mineral waters, was read at the session of the Royal Medical Society, in 1781.

The Memoirs are preceded by some reflections ‘on the art of making experiments and describing chemical phenomena.’ ‘I do not mean to attack any one,’ says our candid author, ‘but I cannot help expressing my surprize at the great ease, with which some modern chemists succeed in their trials, and at the wonderful security with which they adopt new theories, founded on a few indecisive experiments.’

In the first Memoir, on the nature of different precipitations of iron, by pure or mild alkalies, M. Fourcroy proves, that the power of being attracted by a magnet, which partly appears in iron, precipitated by caustic alkali, is owing to the absence of fixed air; but the experiment fails, for obvious reasons, when the acid is concentrated, and the heat employed very great. With a mild volatile alkali, the precipitate is not attracted, till it has been dried with a brisk heat; indeed the mild
volatile

volatile alkali is in some degree a neutral. It appears, from our author, that the magnetic precipitates are soluble in pure volatile alkali, and M. Fourcroy takes occasion to recommend a tincture of steel of this kind, which is preferable to that of Stahl. It will not, however, remain long suspended. There are various other remarks on the volatile alkali; but, in general, its properties are now sufficiently known.

The second *Mémoire* is on the same subject. The fixed alkali, which, in its mild state, he considers as a kind of neutral, does not act so rapidly on chalybeate solutions as the smoking volatile alkali; and the precipitations, procured by its means, are not magnetic. In fact, there is a double attraction; the fixed air unites to the iron, and forms a calx, similar to the common rust of iron; while the alkali unites to the stronger acid, in which the iron was previously dissolved. It appears, that it is difficult to procure a magnetic precipitate by the fixed alkali, as it is not easy to deprive it entirely of fixed air. In the third *Mémoire*, he completes his examination of chalybeate precipitates, and establishes his principles by the synthetic method.

In the fourth *Mémoire*, M. Fourcroy examines the properties of the neutral, formed by iron and fixed air, which he calls martial chalk, and observes, that it differs from all other calces of iron. We have already said that the common rust of iron is this martial chalk.

The two following *Mémoires* are on the Inflammable Air of Marshes, and he examines its production, its differences, its nature, particularly its little inflammability. The last quality is owing to fixed air contained in it; and from this, and an odorous principle, results the difference between this gas and pure inflammable air.

Two other *Mémoires* are employed on a new Theory of the Detonation of Nitre and Pulvis Fulminans. It is, however, rather an induction from facts, and consists in considering the vital or pure air, disengaged from the nitre, as the cause of the rapid inflammation excited in the combustible parts of the composition.

The next *Mémoire* is on the Decomposition of vitriolated Tartar. This was once supposed the most difficult operation in chemistry, though Stahl boasted that he could perform it in the hollow of his hand. We can now do it by means of the terra ponderosa, but Stahl's method certainly was by sulphur. Our author, in consequence of a hint from M. Monnet, employed metallic substances as containing phlogiston. Arsenic had a little effect; cobalt, mercury, lead, copper, and bismuth none; regulus of antimony decomposed it; iron, brass, and zinc succeeded much better; silver and gold seemed to have a very slight effect on this salt. We may add, that mercury, rubbed with vitriolated tartar, was completely extinguished in a little time,

time, and with little trouble; but the salt continued unchanged, and the mercury was recovered by heat.

The Memoir 'On the Nature of the principal Re-agents, and the Use they may be of in the Analysis of Mineral Waters' is, in some respects, new. M. Fourcroy employs chiefly the tincture of turnsol, syrup of violets, lime-water, fixed and volatile caustic alkali, spirit of vitriol and nitre, Prussian alkali, tincture of galls, and solutions of silver and mercury in the nitrous acid. He allows the uncertainty of some of these re-agents, but avoids it, by precipitating the contents, from a large quantity of water, and examining, by analysis, the precipitated matter. This increases the trouble, but, in some instances, is an advantageous method in the hands of a dexterous chemist: to others, we would rather recommend the method of Bergman. Our author quotes, M. Gioanetti, of Turin, for an ingenious method of determining the quantity of fixed air, by that of lime, which is precipitated by a given quantity of acidulous water. We have already commended the same method in our countryman Dr. Pearson, whom we have no reason to suspect of borrowing the hint, for we believe it was never printed till the end of the last year, when Dr. Pearson's work was already published.

M. Fourcroy next adds, a 'New Method of explaining, by the Help of Numbers, the Cause of those Decompositions which are effected by means of double elective Attractions.' He tells us, that no person before him had adopted this method. We allow that no one has carried it so far, but the same mode was many years since proposed by Dr. Black, though our author may not have been acquainted with it. 'Selenite, calcarious nitre, calcarious sea-salt, or the combinations of lime with vitriolic, nitrous, or marine acids, cannot be decomposed either by alkaline air, or fixed air alone; because the first has less affinity with the acids than the lime, and the second less attraction for the lime than the acids; but when both are united (forming the mild volatile alkali) the compound can decompose the other bodies.' Now for the explanation: 'In the selenite, I suppose that the vitriolic acid adheres to the lime with a force equal to 4.' The supposition is necessarily hypothetical; but this is of little consequence, as our author's object is comparative, not real numbers. 'As the alkaline air cannot take this acid from the lime, its attraction to the acid may be expressed by 3; for the same reason, the attraction of the fixed air to the lime may be expressed by 3; and we thus see, that, though either separate be unequal to the task, yet when united, each acting as 3, their compound force will be as 6, consequently superior to that which united the former bodies. So far went Dr. Black; but he illustrated it in a more familiar manner. Our author's improvement, of which he has subjoined some specimens, is to add a table of affinities in the manner of Bergman, such figures as shall express the relative force of attraction, which each body has to that at

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the head of the list. By this means, we shall at once perceive the effects of mixture, both in consequence of single and double elective attraction.

'A description of the apparatus for examining, in miniature, the effect of dephlogisticated air, conveyed to the surface of an inflamed coal on bodies exposed to the brisk heat which it excites,' next follows. The method is neat and convenient; but it must be examined with the plate. We then meet with 'Remarks on the Cause of the Ebullition of Water, and on the Phenomena which accompany it.' This appearance M. Fourcroy thinks depends on the water assuming the form of gas, and is attended with every circumstance which accompanies the same change in other fluids. We think it may be more properly considered as a separation of gas, in consequence of the greater affinity of heat to the humour; because, though ever so much agitated with the latter, it will not unite till the heat is again separated. Perhaps this separated steam may differ in its nature from the remaining water; but it more probably differs only in form. In this view, we see how the gas is easily united to air, and in consequence of a mutual attraction, for every chemist knows, that attraction is more powerfully exerted when bodies resemble each other in form; and we see too how evaporation may go on in vacuo, which, on the footing of its depending on chemical solution only of water in air, has been supposed inexplicable.— But it is not our business to write dissertations, though we may suggest hints for the use of others.

M. Fourcroy next describes 'a crystallized feldt-spath, found mixed with rock crystal and mica, in the neighbourhood of Alençon.' 'The Observations on Incombustibility, considered as a Character of Salts in general,' are connected with M. Lavoisier's new system, of which we meet with a clearer account in this volume than we have hitherto seen; but it is too long for an extract. The principal point which may be styled new, is to prove that salts, and particularly alkalies, consist of a combustible body, combined with pure air. Our author thinks too, that alkalies exist not only potentially but formally in vegetable substances: this opinion is now pretty general on the continent.

The subject which follows is on 'the Difficulty of obtaining the fixed caustic Alkali, in a very pure and solid Form.' Our author's precautions for this purpose, are remarkable only for the great attention with which he prevents the access of common air: at last, the alkali does not drop into the phial, but through a body of quick lime, and it is evaporated with equal address in close vessels. The properties of this salt, when quite pure, we shall select; for in this state it has seldom been described. 'Its fusibility is so great, that it softens by a slight heat, and it becomes very hard by cold: when it is exposed to a temperature of 4 or 5 degrees below 0 (from 23 to 21° of Fahrenheit), it is so hard as to be with difficulty powdered, and

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rebounds from the stroke of the pestle. It is so deliquescent, as in a few minutes to be covered with drops, when exposed to the air, and to become oily in its consistence. It destroys, in a great degree, the colour of syrup of violets, after having changed it to a deep green. It raises a violent heat when thrown in powder into water, and exhales in its solution a greasy urinous smell, (une odeur grosse & lixivielle.)

The Reflections on the Necessity of employing the volatile Alkali, in a State of Gas, in delicate Experiments, are just and proper. In many instances, the result of experiments is very different from what we may expect, when the best fluid alkali is employed. The way we have commonly used, is to put some common alkaline spirit into a phial, to which a cork is fitted, perforated with a bent tube. The bottom of this phial is a little heated, so as to expel the atmospheric air, and the other leg is inserted into another bottle prepared in the same way, in which the liquor to be examined has been previously put. It is needless to add, that the bottoms of the phials must be round and thin, to bear the heat of a lamp furnace. M. Fourcroy puts the fluor in a small retort, and immerses the neck into the fluid to be examined.

Our author's opinion of 'the Cause of the Deliquescence and Efflorescence of Neutral Salts,' is of no great importance. The latter is owing to the air attracting the water of crystallization; the former to the contrary cause. He observes, that those salts which crystallise easily, in large crystals, are subject to efflorescence; the others to deliquescence.

The impurity of the Epsom salt commonly exported, our author finds to arise from marine magnesia mixed with it. The former is efflorescent, the latter deliquescent; and from want of properly distinguishing the genuine salt from its impurity, different accounts of its nature, in this respect, have been given by able chemists. The marine magnesia is about one fiftieth part of the whole.

The liver of arsenic, or the combination of the common white arsenic and a fixed alkali, has no marks of a neutral; but to form a neutral salt the nitrous acid must be distilled from the arsenic, more completely to separate the phlogiston. The difference of the arsenic in these separate states is the subject of our author's remarks; and he explains them according to Lavoisier's system.

M. Fourcroy next examines the phenomena which arise from rubbing kermes mineral, sulphur, and antimony, with fixed caustic alkali. This enquiry is chiefly intended to ascertain the purity of kermes mineral, which, when well washed, and triturated without heat with this alkali, exhales a foetid smell, and changes to an orange colour, with a soft consistence. This true liver of sulphur with antimony is soluble in water.

—The essay before us is, in many other respects, highly curious;

curious; but the length of our article obliges us to decline any farther examination of it.

The Observation on the slow Dissolution of Regulus of Antimony by the marine Acid, only shows, that it really acts on the metal after some months, without the assistance of heat, and produces the usual preparations.

We next learn that lime-water, magnesia, terra ponderosa, and clay, destroy the colour of Prussian blue; and lime-water, digested on it, is a more convenient re-agent to discover iron in water than the Prussian alkali. It is remarkable that Prussian blue, after its colour is destroyed by alkalis, recovers it again on the addition of acids, and that the experiment may be often repeated.

The following observation teaches us, that nitrated mercury precipitates the same coloured matter from milk as from urine; but that the alkaline basis of the neutral is *the fixed vegetable*. These experiments have not, however, been sufficiently diversified, to induce us to explain the fact. We strongly suspect a little inaccuracy.

The note on the spiritus rector of the bile, which has the odour of amber, contains little except the fact itself. The last essay 'on the New Theory to explain the Phenomena of Combustion, Calcination, the Decomposition, and Recomposition of Water and Acids,' contains the explanation of some modern discoveries on the theory of M. Lavoisier. Additions to and corrections of the essay, to explain double elective attraction, by the help of numbers, conclude this instructive volume, which has necessarily drawn us to a greater length, than we proposed, by the variety of subjects, and the number of new and interesting facts. If our readers reap but a small share of the entertainment and information which we have derived from it, they will regret the labour of reading, as little as we do that of writing this extensive article.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

Address to the Stockholders; with a Proposal for the Amendment and better Security of their funded Property; earnestly recommended to their Consideration. 4to. 2s. Murray.

THIS Address relates to a subject of great national importance, the more speedy discharge of the public debt. The author observes, that no minister will be found hardy enough to propose a tax upon our funded property; but he thinks, at the same time, it is reasonable that the funds should contribute towards alleviating the burden of the nation. What he proposes, for this purpose, therefore, is a spontaneous benevolence from the stock-proprietors. The manner in which such a plan might be

be most conveniently carried into execution, he explains at some length; and he warmly recommends it to the consideration of those to whom it is addressed.

British Rights asserted: or, the Minister admonished. 8vo. 6d. Scratcherd.

The subject of this pamphlet is the shop-tax, which the author represents as extremely unjust and oppressive. He may be a sincere friend to the shop-keepers, but is not a powerful advocate in their cause.

The Tenth Chapter of the Acts of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. 8vo. 3d. Thornton.

From the title of this production, it seems as if the author had decimated the acts of the present minister. What pity that nine similar chapters should be totally sunk in oblivion! The subject of this fragment is the shop-tax, concerning which the author's wrath is kindled, and he chastises the chancellor of the exchequer in the venerable style of the Old Testament; but not with scorpions.

A Reply to Sir Lucius O'Brien, Bart. By William Gibbons. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.

In our last Review, we gave an account of some Letters written by this gentleman, concerning the trade and manufactures of Ireland. Sir Lucius O'Brien contends that the apprehension of any rivalry from the Irish, in the iron-manufacture at least, is rendered entirely groundless by local circumstances; and that it may be questioned whether, with regard to other articles of trade likewise, the pernicious consequences, so much dreaded by the manufacturers of both countries, are not in a great measure chimerical. A correspondence has subsisted on this subject, between Sir Lucius and Mr. Gibbons of Bristol, who, in this Reply, makes some observations which tend to refute the opinion maintained by the baronet. As the controversy can only be determined by a comparison of authenticated facts, it is sufficient for us, at present, to observe, that Mr. Gibbons writes with great candour, and appears to be well informed in what relates to the iron trade.

A Retrospective View of the increasing Number of the Standing Army of Great Britain, from its first Establishment in 1650, to the General Peace in 1784. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Walter.

The author of this pamphlet traces the history of standing armies in England, from the establishment of the yeomen of the guard, which he considers as their origin, in 1486, under the reign of Henry the Seventh: observing, that the institution was extended by Charles the Second, who, at different times, levied a regiment of foot, two troops of horse, and two regiments of foot guards. From this period to the present time, the gradual progression of the army is afterwards recited; and

an account is given of the number of troops, regiments, battalions, and companies, now in the service of Great Britain. The author takes into consideration a variety of particulars relative to the army, such as the mode of recruiting, and of billeting the troops, the quartering them in barracks, and the suppression of smuggling by their means. We cannot avoid remarking that he makes frequent digressions from his subject, and uses, likewise, unnecessary repetitions; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that he affords some sensible observations, and useful hints, towards improving the military establishment.

A Collection of all the Treaties of Peace, Alliance, and Commence, between Great Britain and other Powers, from the Treaty signed at Munster, in 1648, to the Treaties signed at Paris in 1783. By the Right Hon. Charles Jenkinson. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. in Boards. Debrett.

This collection appears to be compiled with care and fidelity. The discourse prefixed to it, and likewise to a former collection of treaties, was originally published in 1758, without the author's name. It was intended as a defence of the conduct of our government in seizing the Dutch ships; and affords ample testimony of the ingenuity and learning of the author.

Report of the Cricklade Case. 8vo. 9s. T. Payne.

This Report contains the proceedings in the courts of law, before the select committee, and in both houses of parliament, relative to a well-known case of election-bribery. The Report is published by Mr. Petrie, who likewise commenced and conducted the prosecutions concerning that infamous transaction.

The Neglect of the effectual Separation of Prisoners, &c. the Cause of the frequent Thefts and Violences committed. By J. H. Esq. 8vo. 1s. Doddsley.

This pamphlet, which consists of fifteen letters, delivers a clear, and, we believe, a faithful representation of the evils arising from the want of good order and religious œconomy in our prisons. The subject is of national importance, as well as interesting to humanity; and towards introducing a less exceptionable plan of imprisonment, the author of these letters has furnished many valuable hints and observations.

D I V I N I T Y.

The Restitution of all Things: an Essay on the important Purpose of the Universal Redeemer's Destination. By the Rev. James Brown, late Missionary, &c. in the Province of Georgia. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

Every effort to elucidate the grandeur and extent of the views proposed by the Supreme Being, in the divine revelations of his will,

will, every judicious attempt to obviate the mean-exclusive partialities of the Jews, and the effects of those narrow and circumscribed systems which have prevailed among too many sects of Christians, deserve the attention and gratitude of mankind. Amongst such may be reckoned the liberal Essay before us. The author, who, amidst the tumults and alarms of war, and the distraction and confusion of a garrison and camp, with which he was connected at the time of writing it, must have contemplated the benevolence of the Deity, in the general order of his creation and providence, with peculiar conviction and impartiality, as his judgment appears to have suffered no bias from the natural emotions of the heart, or impulses of the imagination, under so disturbed and calamitous an aspect of things, as a state of war, in all its forms, must exhibit.

The plan of this Essay is, first, 'to point out what appears as well from nature and reason, as from revelation, to be the design and extent of the mediatorial character and government of the Redeemer.—And, secondly, to suggest some idea of the happy effects of his undertaking, and of that glorious and important consummation, which we expect as the ultimate end and object of it.'

Mr. Brown has treated these points with considerable learning, and with a degree of argument, to which every well-disposed mind must wish to allow its full weight: the subject admits not demonstration. The author's style is perspicuous and elegant, though perhaps too diffuse for a philosophical Essay; a light, however, in which it may be scarcely candid to consider it, as it was, not improbably, first written for the pulpit. This Essay, on the whole, abounds with such enlarged and consolatory views of the divine administration as to make it worthy of attentive perusal.

A Discourse upon Repentance. By Thomas Scott, Curate of Olney and Weston-Underwood. 12mo. 9d. Johnson.

Mr. Scott treats his subject under five distinct heads. 1. The Necessity of Repentance. 2. Its Nature. 3. Encouragements to it. 4. The proper Season for it. 5. The Means of Repentance.

This Discourse is warm, earnest, and pious; it was originally addressed, at least in part, to the author's congregations in the country. The style of it is plain and energetic, and seems well calculated to produce effect. We are sorry to meet with expressions which savour of the cant of the tabernacle, such as *stony-ground bearers, experiences, manifestations, seasons of peculiar melting, an abundant entrance into the everlasting kingdom, &c.* The anility of this sort of language is often apt to excite prejudices against performances, in other respects not meriting censure.

We are not so sure, as we wish to be, that our author does not incline to the mystic interpretation of the *new birth* or *regeneration*,

ration, which many rational divines, taking them differently, have considered only as figurative terms to express an entire reformation of life; or, in an appropriated sense, as meaning *our being engrafted into Christ's church, and our becoming the sons of God by adoption*, of which baptism is the visible sign and seal.

P O E T R Y.

Plantagenet. A Poem. 4to. 1s. Almon.

The design of this production is to give a short sketch of the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster; and to describe the horrors of those times. Happily for us, the sketch is indeed short; but what shall we say of the author's abilities, when, notwithstanding its shortness, we have found it exceedingly tedious? Whether he had any such application in view, is best known to himself; but he certainly describes the horrors of those times in *horrible* poetry.

Royal Tears! Sacred to Filial Piety. By William Whitmore. 4to, 2s. Debrett,

The domestic distresses attending the abdication of king James, which form the subject of this poem, cannot now be interesting to many readers; and the language of the poem is, besides, too much laboured, as well as obscure, to excite the tender emotions which genuine elegy is calculated to inspire.

The Royal Dream; or the P—— in a Panic. An Eclogue. 4to. 2s. Forres.

A fantastic eclogue, neither conspicuous for its poetical merit nor moral tendency.

The Power of Oratory. An Ode. 11. Shepperson and Reynolds.

The subject of this Ode is the anecdote related by Plutarch, of the extraordinary effects of Cicero's oration for Ligarius on the mind of Cæsar. It has been set to music by Dr. Hayes, professor of music at Oxford; and, though containing a few blemishes, is, upon the whole, a favourable specimen of poetical genius.

The Æsopiad. A Poem. Printed at Dublin.

This poem is intended as a critique on the merits of the performers at the Theatre-Royal, Smock-Alley. Those whom the author chiefly applauds are Kemble and Rider; but of the justness of his remarks on many of them, as being unknown to us, we must leave undetermined.

DRAMATIC.

D R A M A T I C.

The Choleric Fathers. A Comic Opera. Performed at the Theatre-Royal in Covent-Garden. By Thomas Holcroft. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.

Mr. Holcroft deserves all possible commendation, for the ardour of his industry, and the versatility of his exertions.—The piece before us has as strong claims to approbation as most of the modern productions of the like name and description. The characters are whimsically imagined, the humour of most of them well sustained, and their conduct laughable: that of Isabel, however, seems to require a little improvement.—The incidents, in general, are natural, and comic. Perhaps that which is calculated to facilitate the catastrophe, is rather improbable; but, in the composition of operas, custom has sanctioned liberties that would not be allowed in the construction of a regular drama.

The songs of this Opera are written with greater attention to poetry and sense than is usual in works of this nature, which are more frequently intended for entertainment, by the medium of stage-representation, than for perusal in the closet. The thoughts in many of the songs are well conceived, and the expression often neat and pointed. Where they are songs of humour, calculated to produce a laughable effect only, the aim is happily attained.

The music is exquisitely composed by Mr. Shield; and cannot fail to add to the reputation of that ingenious artist.

Appearance is against them. A Farce, in Two Acts, as it is acted at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. 8vo. 1s. Robinson.

This farce is the production of Mrs. Inchbald, an actress in the Covent Garden company. It possesses sufficient merit to make us hope for something more from the same pen.—The principal incident is slight, and the use made of it not quite natural; but every consequence that follows from the freedom used with the Shawl of lady Margaret Magpie, is possible to have happened: of this circumstance it cannot be denied, that the fair author has ingeniously availed herself. The dialogue is sprightly, and the equivoque in the second act, where a simple clown and lady Margaret are at cross-purposes, in consequence of an error into which they have been eventually led, is extremely diverting.

The Lawyer's Panic; or Westminster Hall in an Uproar. A Prelude, acted at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By John Dent. 8vo. 1s. Bladon.

It is probable that this author sympathised with the panic which he describes; for though the incident, which forms the basis

basis of the prelude, was no doubt ludicrous, it is worked up in this production with very little humour.

N O V E L S.

Adventures of George Maitland, Esq. 3 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d.
Murray.

If it be a pleasure to meet an old acquaintance in an unexpected manner, it is disagreeable to find him in a disguise, on no very good design. This is the situation in which we behold James Ramble, esq. metamorphosed into George Maitland. The names are changed; the story, with the minutest incidents, is the same. Lord George is now lord William; Mr. Pounce is Mr. Kelly; and almost all the inferior personages of the drama are adorned with new titles. Mrs. Gentle is transformed to Willis, and an excellent characteristic pun of the old steward's is lost by the change: as the speech now appears, it is nonsense. The transcriber, by his inattention, has discovered himself: Kelly, the quondam Pounce, tells Maitland that lord George will be glad to see him. It is so in the original; but when we proceed farther, no lord George appears. This literary imposture deserves the severest reprehension; and the harshest term in our language may be aptly applied to it. We have done our duty in detecting the plagiarist; and 'now, sir, to breakfast with what appetite you may.'

Constance. A Novel. By a Young Lady. In Four Volumes. 12mo. 12s. Hookham.

In this artless narrative, the incidents are numerous and striking, the situations interesting and pathetic, the morality unexceptionable. The story is intricate without confusion; and the mistakes are explained without violence. We have felt, in the perusal, the author's power to harrow up the soul, or, in turn, to expand it by the warmest, the most benevolent and social feelings: in many of these respects our 'young lady' does not yield to female novellists of the highest rank. It is, however, from incidents and situations, that our greatest interest and entertainment are derived: the story is common almost to triteness, and the characters are not new. 'Is it from want of invention, said a gentleman (speaking of an eminent painter's landscape) that he uses no more than two colours; or from an excess of it, that he can produce such great effects by means of two only?' Indeed we think the author of *Constance* might make every literary quid-nunc ashamed of his eagerness after novelty.

If the young lady pursues this line of writing, we would advise that her language should be less embarrassed, and her plan less extensive. A few typographical and historical mistakes also, of little real consequence, if avoided, would, like the birth-place of the king of Bohemia, 'make the story look better in the face.'

Francis.

Francis the Philanthropist; an unfashionable Tale. In Three Volumes. 12mo. 9s. Lane.

This is a Teyon from a venerable stock, which sprouts with vigour, if not with luxuriance. In plainer English, the author has left the fashionable mode of expanding his story, by the uninteresting exclamations of insipid correspondents, and adopted that of discriminated description, and interesting situation. His language is free and easy; his observations neither tritely superficial, nor affectedly philosophical; and his drawings preserve a roughness, not perhaps essential to good pictures, but not unsuitable to characteristic sketches. The author chiefly excels in shrewd, unexpected remarks; but good sense animates the whole, and he is occasionally pathetic and moral. We have been much entertained with the work before us; and wish to see the author again engaged in a similar undertaking.

Warbeck. A pathetic Tale. In Two Volumes. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Lane.

This is a translation from the French, of the story of Peter Warbeck, who, under the semblance of the duke of York, endangered the throne of that gloomy unfeeling tyrant, Henry the Seventh. The conduct of the novel closely imitates the real events; but the force is weakened by exclamations, by conversations, and reflections. Some parts are related with address; but the whole is not very interesting. English literature would have sustained little loss, if the French work had been still neglected.

The Quaker. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. By a Lady. In Three Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Lane.

There is little merit in the management of the story, or novelty in the characters. The Quaker is distinguished by her dress and her language, but has no great connection with the most interesting parts of the work. We hope that a scrupulous and nice sense of honour is not considered by the author as peculiar to this sect; and we can find no other distinction. The Episode of Miss Mollyn is interesting; but possesses no other merit. On the whole this is, in our opinion, an indifferent performance.

Love in a Cottage. A Novel. By B. Walwyn, Author of the Errors of Nature. In Two Vols. 12mo. 5s. Shepperson and Reynolds.

This is an interesting little story, though some of the incidents are scarcely within the bounds of probability. The ladies are, however, little obliged to Mr. Walwyn for the examples of the weakness and mutability of their sex. The lions are, in their turn, painters; but they do not seem disposed to retaliate: the tender texture of the female mind does not per-
haps

haps allow of any very lasting resentments. These volumes are not very full of incident and intrigue, and the morality is less exceptionable than the language: there are no very great errors or inelegancies in the latter, yet we think it is not polished with sufficient care.

The Duped Guardian; or, the Amant Malade. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. By Mrs. Cartwright. Two Vols. 12mo. 6s. Casb.

The English, the French, and the Latin of these little volumes are equally exceptionable; and the greater part of the story is that of Mrs. Cowley's last comedy, viz. 'More Ways than One:' we mean so far as relates to the artless niece of the artful physician. Yet Mrs. Cartwright has avoided one exceptionable part of the plot, which we noticed; for Luttrell's honour, and the propriety of his conduct, render him a real acquisition. In other respects, there is some contrivance in the conduct of the story, and we are interested in the event. The characters are the threadbare personages of a modern novel.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

The Life of the Rev. Isaac Watts, D. D. By Samuel Johnson, LL. D. With Notes; containing Animadversions and Additions. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivington.

There is something uncandid in the conduct of this publication. The title-page carries with it the appearance of some desire that the public should believe the work to be Dr. Johnson's. Having made their purchase, they find about one-fifth of it only what they expected; which is the account of Dr. Watts, taken by the editor from the Lives of the English Poets. The notes, which are at least equal to the text in quantity, are strictures, animadversions, and corrections of Dr. Johnson's account, conveying some additional information relative to Dr. Watts's character, connections, &c. Dr. Johnson being treated in these notes with some degree of harshness, we cannot help observing, that whilst his name is made subservient to the success of the work, and his matter borrowed to increase its bulk, it seems ungenerous that the biographer should be brought forward for little else than to receive correction. Is it not enough to condemn a man, without making him erect the scaffold for his own execution?

Dr. Johnson's Life of Dr. Watts is followed by an authentic account of this respectable divine's last avowed sentiments concerning the doctrine of the Trinity, the deity of Christ, &c.

These opinions being, to all appearance, carefully and accurately stated, and being the conscientious results of so professed a reasoner as Dr. Watts, on these important subjects, cannot but deservedly excite curiosity, although they will not be found entirely calculated to satisfy it. To this article, pretty largely treated, succeeds Dr. Watts' *Solemn Address to the great and ever blessed*

blessed God, on a Review of what he had written in the Trinitarian Controversy. This little piece is by no means uninteresting, and bears testimony to that sincerity and earnestness, which seems to have been characteristic of the doctor's mind.

The book concludes with a miscellaneous Appendix, some parts of which will not be refused their share of merit by the admirers of this learned and worthy person.

A candid and impartial Sketch of the Life of Pope Clement XIV. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Printed at Dublin.

The author of these letters sets out with taking a general view of the institution and early government of the society of Jesuits; after which he gives an account of the life and reign of Clement the Fourteenth, by whom it was abolished; the grandson, as we are told, of a man who earned his subsistence by selling skins. The temper of this amiable pontiff is said to have been easy, open, and affable; his conversation was tinged with wit and humour. The author insinuates that Ganganelli was not averse to an amorous intercourse with the fair; but as this charge is totally unsupported by any fact, we are inclined to consider it as the fiction of malignity against a respectable character.

Memoirs of George Anne Bellamy. 12mo. 3s. Walker.

Mrs. Bellamy's Apology having been found a popular production, this gentleman, for such the author styles himself, has thought proper to make an abridgement of the work. How far this conduct is suitable to the character he has assumed, we shall not determine.

An Heroic Epistle to Major Scott, with Notes Historical and Explanatory. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

This Epistle, it seems, has been written with the view of exposing to ridicule some ill-founded pretensions to an honourable descent, said to have been uttered in a certain assembly.—If even the virtues of ancestors cannot confer any hereditary honour on their posterity, much less can the latter expect to derive esteem from ostentatious and false eulogiums on their progenitors.

The Degeneracy of the Times. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

This pamphlet is otherwise named in the title-page, 'A Disgraceful Tale of the Hon. Captain F-zr-y;' but the occurrence which it mentions is such as reflects honour on the captain's generosity, who, out of his own private fortune, compassionately relieved the extreme distress of a brother officer.

Reflections on the Study of Nature. 8vo. 1s. Nicols.

This is a translation of the celebrated Linnæus's Preface to his *Museum Regis Adolphi Frederici*, one of his most magnificent works.

works. The design of the original author, in that preface, was to evince the dignity and importance of a philosophical enquiry into the works of nature. This he performed with that extensive knowledge and ability for which he was distinguished; and we think that the present translation is executed in a manner correspondent to the subject.

Remarks on the extraordinary Conduct of the Knight of the Ten Stars, and his Italian Squire. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

In regard to the original cause which has given rise to this dispute, we cannot say any thing with certainty; but so far we are safe to pronounce, that if Mr. Bowle, who lately published a valuable edition of Don Quixote in the Spanish language, has received any just provocation from Mr. Baretti, or others, he has, in these Remarks, retaliated with much indignant severity on the character and writings of his opponents.

A Letter to a respectable Proprietor of the Navigation from the Trent to the Mersey. By Josiah Wedgwood, F. R. S. 4to. 1s. Becket.

It appears that some person, under the signature of *An Old Proprietor*, had, in a printed account of certain transactions, relative to the management of the company's affairs, impeached the conduct of the committee, and particularly of Mr. Wedgwood. The charge was partly respecting the navigation, and partly related to printed statements of 'Facts respecting some Differences which have arisen between the Duke of Bridgewater, and the Proprietors of the Navigation from the Trent to the Mersey.' These statements the *Old Proprietor* ascribed entirely to Mr. Wedgwood, though they were issued under the sanction of the committee.

The object of the present Letter, dated April 30, 1785, is to refute the charges above mentioned: and we must candidly acknowledge that, so far as we can judge from Mr. Wedgwood's representation only, he appears to have, in the most satisfactory manner, repelled the accusations of the *Old Proprietor*. We may at least affirm, that he has defended the proceedings of the committee with such force of argument, and such evidence of integrity, as fully evinces his title to the respectable character which he universally holds in society.

A Collection of Gaelic Proverbs, and Familiar Phrases. By Donald Mac Intosh. 12mo. 2s. Printed at Edinburgh.

This collection is accompanied with an English translation, for the purpose, it seems, of facilitating the study of the language. Subjoined to it is 'The Way to Wealth,' by Dr. Franklyn, translated into Gaelic by Donald Mac Intosh. For any thing we know, both the translations may be executed with fidelity; but we are sorry that our inacquaintance with the Gaelic will not permit our bearing testimony to the abilities of honest Donald, as a translator.

A New

A New French Spelling Book, with the English to every Word; or, a System of Reading, on a Plan so entirely new as not to bear the least Resemblance to any Thing of the Kind hitherto attempted. By Mr. Du Mitand. 8vo. 1s. Crowder.

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In this work, the battles are related in chronological order; beginning with that of the Grampian Hills, in the year 85, and ending with the battle of Culloden, in 1746. The materials appear to be carefully collected, and are recited in a perspicuous style.—Should this History prove successful, the author intimates a design of publishing an account of the battles of England, from the landing of Julius Cæsar in Britain, to the end of the last war; and the work, we are informed, is almost ready for the press.

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